DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 151 237 95 SO 010 404

AUTHOR Metcalf, Fay D.; Downey, Matthew T.
TITLE Teaching Local History: Trends, Tips, and Resources.
INSTITUTION ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, Boulder, Colo.; Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., Boulder, Colo.
SPONS AGENCY National Inst. of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE 77
NOTE 110p.; Figure 1 on page 18 may not reproduce clearly due to poor reproducibility of original document
AVAILABLE FROM Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 855 Broadway, Boulder, Colorado 80302 ($3.75, order SSEC Publication Number 215, paperbound)

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.83 HC-$6.01 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Community Resources; *Community Study; Elementary Secondary Education; *Family (Sociological Unit); History Instruction; Instructional Materials; Learning Activities; *Local History; Oral History; Primary Sources; *Social Studies; Teaching Guides; Teaching Techniques; *United States History

ABSTRACT

Trends, tips, and resources for teaching local and family history are identified in this state-of-the-art paper. Using the local community as a historical resource can make American history more relevant and meaningful to students and aids in the development of a wide range of skills, including library use skills, writing skills, and skills used in evaluating historical data. A study of a community will yield information abouts its social history, economic history, family history, architecture and public art, and folklores and cultural journalism. Suggestions about how to retrieve a community's history and teaching activities and techniques for using the information are provided in each chapter. Many of the suggestions describe projects and activities that teachers currently use in their own classes. A final chapter contains a list of local history resources, including books, photographs, and materials on how to use local sources. (JR)

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TEACHING LOCAL HISTORY:
TRENDS, TIPS, AND RESOURCES

by

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SO 010 404

Published jointly by:

ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, Boulder, Colorado

and

Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., Boulder, Colorado

1977

The material in this publication was prepared pursuant to a contract with the National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their judgment in professional and technical matters. Prior to publication, the manuscript was submitted to the National Council for the Social Studies for critical review and determination of professional competence. Points of view or opinions, however, do not necessarily represent the official view or opinions of either the National Council for the Social Studies or the National Institute of Education.

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PREFACE

The past five years have seen a remarkable growth of interest in using local and family history as teaching resources. Teachers across the country have put students to work tracing their family history, interviewing older residents about the history of their community, and collecting local history materials. We began to assign such projects to students in our United States history classes in the early 1970s. Later on we developed separate local history courses. Like so many other teachers in both the schools and colleges who were doing the same thing, we proceeded by trial and error, learning what worked with students as we went along.

Although we had had experience developing family and local history projects, and had conducted clinics and workshops on the topic, neither of us had had time to write about the subject extensively. Thus we welcomed the opportunity presented by Karen Wiley, then ERIC/ChESS editor, to prepare a "tips and resources" publication on local history.

Our first step was to retrieve from the ERIC system all of its bibliographic entries on the subject. Since one of us had previously made such a search for another purpose three years before, we were not expecting much that was new. We were surprised to get back a thick print-out indicating an extraordinary amount of continuing activity by professional associations, curriculum developers, and classroom teachers. At that point we had to decide whether to make this publication a "how-to" manual based on our own experience, or a "state of the art" paper describing the great variety of projects that other teachers have developed as well.

Although the study is a compromise between those alternatives, it is primarily a state-of-the-art paper. We decided that a publication based upon the experience of a great number of teachers would be the more valuable. We have only occasionally inserted the results of our own experience. The booklet is not a how-to-do-it

manual that lays out step by step the process a teacher should go through to present local and family history the way we ourselves have done it. Consequently we cannot vouch for the results of many of the projects described. A guide that would explain what to do day by day with predictable results might be useful, but it would not have been as comprehensive as this paper.

We wish to thank Frances Haley, Peter O'Connell, and W. Allen Thomas, Jr. for their helpful criticism of the manuscript. We hope they will understand why we did not accept all of their suggestions for change.

F.D.M.

M.T.D.

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TEACHING LOCAL HISTORY: TRENDS, TIPS, AND RESOURCES

by

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I

USING THE COMMUNITY AS A HISTORICAL RESOURCE

The use of community resources in teaching history is a subject of considerable interest among social studies educators today. Newsletters and journals that include reports from teachers about the use of local, family, and oral history projects reflect this growing interest. Some school districts recommend such projects to their teachers through curriculum resource guides. A few districts have even published local histories for classroom use. Professional associations have produced numerous how-to-do-it manuals on local and oral history. The recent increase in this kind of activity is partly a result of the innumerable local American bicentennial celebrations, just as the Canadian centennial celebration in 1967 stimulated interest in local history there (Hamilton 1974). But much of the current interest in teaching local and family history will no doubt persist long after the bicentennial's injection of historical consciousness has worn off.

Using the community as a historical resource has its own roots in the past. Teachers of many decades ago had their students searching out the history of their community. One of the standard guide books on writing local history singled out for special mention is a county history written in 1917 by students at Fairmont High School in Marion County, West Virginia (Parker 1944, p. 24). The State Historical Society of Iowa published in 1924 an *Information Bulletin* on the use of state and local history in the high schools (Mahan 1924). The use of local history in the classroom gained academic

respectability by the 1930s as part of the movement to improve social studies instruction through the use of community resources. That was the major topic of one of the early yearbooks of the National Council for the Social Studies, titled *Utilization of Community Resources in the Social Studies* (West 1938), which contained two chapters on the use of local history sources. It was even then an article of faith that learning is more effective when it incorporates experiences from a student's immediate environment.

That principal continues to be a major justification for the use of local history resources. As a recent writer has expressed it, "Since students do not live their daily lives in the extended community, state, or nation, but in the neighborhood, it is obvious there should be a continuing stress on local history if the larger and more complex world is to be comprehended" (Cullen 1975-76, p. 10). Consequently, it is not unusual to find local history used in conjunction with other community-oriented projects in a school's social studies curriculum (see, for example, Capron and Haley 1972). Similarly, local history tends to be used in the curriculum at those places where attention is focused on the local community, especially in the elementary and junior high schools. This traditional rationale for local history will undoubtedly continue to be important even as the study of community history gains status in its own right.

The respect and professional legitimacy that community history has gained in recent years will no doubt enhance its place in the school curriculum. Once the domain of amateurs, antiquarians, and town boosters, local historical investigations have become a tool of serious historical scholarship (Rasso 1974). Sumner Chilton Powell (1963) selected the village of Sudbury, Massachusetts, to examine the social adaptation of English colonists in his Pulitzer Prize winning history, *Puritan Village: The Formation of a New England Town*. Other social historians have focused on a single colonial town to examine land distribution, social values, and family life (Greven 1970; Demos 1970). Richard Wade's (1959) study of the origin of five midwestern towns substantially modified long-accepted ideas about frontier settlement.

Other grass-roots studies of town development have added greatly to our understanding of the later westward movement (Dykstra 1968, Smith 1967). Intensive investigation at the community level has become such a widely accepted technique of historical scholarship that it will undoubtedly have an impact upon the way history is taught. Courses that involve students in local history investigations may well become legitimate social studies offerings in their own right.

The current interest in using the community as a historical resource may also reflect the influence of the New Social Studies movement. Materials produced by the major history projects of the 1960's emphasized student inquiry and the use of primary historical documents. So do local history projects. However, it is possible for students doing research in local history to carry the inquiry process several steps beyond the level represented by the major history curriculum projects. Student inquiry can be less structured and constrained because the students have access to a broader range of sources. Instead of merely testing hypotheses with the data provided for them, the students can find their own data, organize it, and develop their own questions for further inquiry. It is likely that teachers influenced by the New Social Studies movement would be sympathetic to the use of local historical resources. The rationale for the use of local history and that of the New Social Studies movement are also in some respects quite similar.

The Rationale for Using Local Historical Resources

The literature on the use of the community as a historical resource yields an extensive list of educational benefits said to be derived from it. It is said to make history more interesting. "Of the many values that students gain from the study of local history, the two most important are those of increased interest and a heightened sense of realism" (Brown and Tyrrell 1961, p. 1). It is also said to produce better citizens, to develop critical thinking skills, to enhance the student's awareness of his immediate environment, and to help integrate the two learning environments of school and community. Many of these alleged outcomes are difficult to

measure. Some may be little more than expressions of pedagogical faith. At any rate the existing literature is almost entirely descriptive and is wholly lacking in experimental data which demonstrate that the use of local historical resources produces results claimed for it.

This means that teachers using local and family history activities need to pay more attention to what students learn from the experience. It is not to suggest that such activities lack educational value. Rather, teachers should make a systematic effort to determine what the benefits are. They need to find out what students learn from the experience and how it affects their attitudes toward history and social studies on one hand and their family or local community on the other. Until credible evidence about such outcomes is available, testimonial statements should be read with some caution.

It is frequently said that local or family history projects tend to stimulate student interest, especially among students who normally find history boring. One teacher's manual attractively describes this prospect as follows: "Freddy Bartolmi lives in a small town that has little in the way of organized sports. He can surpass every boy in school on the baseball field but neither reads, thinks, nor makes any real effort to learn in the classroom. It is quite possible that Freddy might become excited over the story of the Dunkville Tigers, a baseball team that represented his town forty years ago. From this interest the teacher might well work with Freddy on the why's and wherefore's of the change in the community attitude toward sports" (Brown and Tyrrell 1961, p. 3).

One wonders, however, whether the interest would be the result of some quality inherent in local history or of the teacher's deviation from the traditional content of school history. Perhaps Freddy is simply more interested in the history of baseball than in the history of presidential elections. Conversely, a teacher determined to make history uninteresting for Freddy could do it as easily with local history as with any other.

The stimulus to rethink the traditional content of history courses may be one of the more important benefits of using family and local

history activities. The events and themes of the traditional American history course may not have much meaning at the community level. Presidential elections and Supreme Court decisions, captains of industry and nationally famous people may not have had much local impact. The teacher is forced to reevaluate the criteria normally used for deciding what content is important.

What *is* important at the local level? In an ordinary community the important events are most likely to be those that affected ordinary people in ordinary ways--events such as the coming of the street car, the expansion of the shipyards, or the story of the Dunkville Tigers. Events of this kind reflected the quality of life at the grassroots.

Another common justification for teaching local history is that it can make American history more relevant and meaningful. National trends are more understandable when they are reflected in local incidents (Lord 1964, pp. 8-9). "Students who are given the opportunity to interview family members or community residents about the Great Depression. . . usually develop a far deeper interest in the course because their world and the course material are more fully integrated" (Neuenschwander 1976, p. 11). The community can also serve as a history laboratory for testing textbook generalizations (Van Leuvan 1962). The potential for this kind of integration and interplay between the community and the nation certainly does exist. The result could be a synthesis of local and national developments which produces a greater understanding of both. However, this is not the same as the teacher occasionally throwing in a local example to illustrate a lecture about some national development. Unfortunately, the literature suggests that the latter is what usually has happened. Although the potential for the other approach exists, it has barely been realized.

Local historical investigations can also provide the opportunity for students to develop a wide range of skills. A resource guide prepared by the West Texas Council for the Social Studies (Dynneson 1976, pp. 3-4) lists the following: (1) library use skills;

(2) writing skills, including techniques of outlining, sentence and paragraph construction, and notetaking; (3) skills involved in developing and adhering to a work schedule, including the development of an efficient sequence for completing tasks, setting and working within realistic deadlines, and the scheduling of appointments for interviews sufficiently in advance; and (4) skills used in evaluating historical evidence. The last would include a variety of what are usually called critical thinking skills, such as detecting bias, sorting through conflicting evidence, and verifying information. Other skills can surely be added to this list, including the skills involved in organizing information and in extracting historical information from public agencies and bureaucratic institutions. For students to learn how to deal successfully with the gatekeepers of public information is no small accomplishment.

Other reasons commonly cited for using local history in the classroom fall within the general area of citizenship education. Through historical investigations students can learn about the institutions and problems of the local community (Brown and Tyrrell 1961, p. 1). With this knowledge they will be better able as adults to deal with community problems. After all, the responsibilities of citizenship are the most immediate and continuous at the local level. It may be possible to use local history to develop community consciousness just as American history has been used to develop national consciousness.

Local History and the Social Studies Curriculum

Local history projects and courses have been incorporated into the social studies curriculum at virtually every level, from elementary grades to university courses. Although some secondary schools have developed separate local history courses, these are still the exception. Far more common are local history projects incorporated into an existing history or social studies course.

The kinds of projects that have been reported on and recommended by how-to-do-it manuals vary greatly. Traditional social studies concepts are a common source of inspiration. A pamphlet produced by

the National Council for the Social Studies (Brown and Tyrrell 1961, pp. 6-7) suggested the following areas for historical research: transportation, communication, occupational development, professional services, land values, architecture, and public opinion. Another manual (Lord 1964, pp. 23-28) included education, government, organized labor, and recreation in its list of recommended topic areas. The projects that have been reported on in more recent years suggest that modern social issues have been at least as important in identifying areas of research. Racial, ethnic, and family history projects are especially popular. The guide produced recently by the West Texas Council for the Social Studies (Dynneson 1976) recommended the following basis for selecting topics:

1. Projects based on a specific type of source material, the purpose being "to give the student experience with the resource material rather than an exhaustive type of research experience."
2. Local history projects based on current social issues to help students understand the historical roots of current social realities.
3. Projects concerned with local events related to the growth and development of the community.

An instructor in a state college in Wisconsin (Wyman 1962) found a biographical approach both successful and versatile. It becomes family history when the biography is that of a relative. It can become a study of folklore if the subjects are local folk healers or water witches. Biographies of successful businessmen and politicians were traditional social and political history topics.

The types of projects depend upon the grade level at which they are used. At the elementary grades, local historical investigations tend to be modest efforts that supplement a social studies unit on the local community. The project may be as simple as a field trip or a slide presentation. Usually the historical information is provided by the teacher or by a local historian. However, some elementary school projects have been much more ambitious. Fourth graders in Matawan,

New Jersey, wrote a history of their town based on interviews with older residents and a questionnaire that the students mailed to local business firms (Spiegel 1973). With the help of the State Department of Education and a local printing firm, the book was published as a text for fourth graders in that school district. This project was more elaborate than most.

Local history seems to be most extensively used at the junior high school level. As in the elementary grades, it is often included in a unit on the local community (Delaney 1963, p. 153). Local history is part of a community study course in the Dade County, Florida, Public Schools. The course uses the locale to hold together a diverse sampling of economics, education, government, environmental studies, and local history (Friedman 1971). Community history projects and units are also sometimes included in state history courses, which are frequently offered at the junior high school level. The junior high school curriculum has been traditionally a convenient place to incorporate local historical resources.

Although integration into other social studies units seems to be the rule at the junior high level, separate local history courses are not unheard of. The Rochester, Minnesota, Public Schools offered a local history course in 1961 as a four-week noncredit enrichment program for a group of junior high students. The class met in the basement of the County Historical Society Museum, which permitted the museum staff to become involved in teaching and the students to become familiar with the resources of the museum (Gittus 1963).

The separate local history course is more likely to be found at the high school level, where the use of local history resources tends to be looked upon as a major innovation. This is so even though high school teachers have been using local examples in their American history courses for years and will probably continue to do so.

However, some teachers have begun to use the historical resources of the community in high schools in far more innovative ways. A number of schools have added elective local history courses at the eleventh and twelfth grade (Pratt and Haley n.d.; Cullen 1975-76). The

students at Enfield High School in Enfield, Connecticut, developed a Living History Center as part of the school's social studies laboratory. It consists of audio-visual materials, including a student-made slide-tape presentation, which reflect the community's history (Capron and Haley 1972). Occasionally, local history sources have been utilized in other social studies classes, such as a high school anthropology course at Sturbridge, Massachusetts (Pratt 1976). High school teachers in some schools have in the recent past gone beyond the use of local history as illustrations in the American history survey course.

The Teacher's Responsibilities

Successful local history projects and courses are obviously not spur-of-the moment enterprises. Local community studies of any kind, as Colin J. Marsh (1976, p. 262) has put it, "do not just happen on a sunny afternoon." A great deal of preparation by the teacher has to precede the excitement which comes from the student's encounter with the past. In fact, launching students into local history projects without a previous tilling of the ground is generally conceded to be a prescription for disappointment. One manual (Dynneson 1976, pp. 2-3) insists that teachers accept responsibility for at least the following:

1. A comprehensive list of topics for student research, which will help eliminate some of the frustration that students encounter in finding a manageable topic.
2. Providing a comprehensive list of community resources, including the type of historical information that students can expect to find in libraries, museums, local historical societies, and public agencies. This should be prepared as a handout.
3. Displays of projects completed by previous students to serve as models, along with a thorough discussion of the pitfalls that other students have fallen into.
4. Plans for an attractive culminating activity as a goal toward which students can work and as a device for sustaining

> motivation. This means that student projects will receive visibility as local history displays; as presentations to student, parent, or community groups; or as markers for local historical buildings. More ambitious projects, such as self-guided historical walking tours or historical markers for hiking trails, could make a lasting contribution to the community.

A guide for a state history course that incorporated local resources, produced by the Ohio State Department of Education (*Frontier Ohio* n.d., p. 13) also urged teachers to seek financial support from the school district. "Some schools might be willing to pay expenses for the collecting of needed data or employ teachers during the summer to collect needed primary source materials," it suggests. "These materials could be duplicated for student use."

Teachers must face the fact that local history projects and courses, like every other kind of instruction, require expenditures of money. Some of the important data about the community are very likely to be located out of the reach of students. The best-equipped libraries and the largest collections of archival material and photographs tend to be located in large cities. Even those students who live near these resources will probably find many collections restricted to use by adults. Access to rare materials is invariably limited to adult researchers. It will be necessary for the teacher to have such materials microfilmed or photocopied. A copying budget is essential for even a modest history effort. Although collecting of scattered sources will be necessary, this task should not be a major deterrent to any teacher who wants to utilize local historical resources. Every community, no matter how small or how recently developed, has some historical source materials close at hand.

More important than money is commitment. Fully exploiting the possibilities of local historical resources requires a long-term investment of time and effort. Community history programs tend to improve with age. Locating archival sources, identifying older residents who are important sources of oral history, and building up a core

of other source materials is a continuing process. It is essentially a process of self-education. Eventually the experienced local history teacher will be the program's most valuable resource of all.

The successful use of historical source material also involves a commitment to work patiently and closely with the students. Even though student projects require independent work after school hours, they should not be regarded merely as homework. The teacher will need to commit a great deal of class time to discussion and to helping with research.

Choosing a Focus

In developing local history projects and courses, teachers should guard against being overly ambitious. The purpose of the research is to involve students in the process of historical inquiry rather than to produce a comprehensive community history. The latter simply cannot be achieved by a single local history class or even several successive classes. Even with more limited topics -- an ethnic group's experience in the community, the history of the school system, or a history of the first decade of the community's existence -- the students in one class can only scratch the surface. The most successful projects are likely to be those that are *initially* the most carefully defined and limited in scope: Why did the textile mills of Wales, Massachusetts, go bankrupt? Why was a German-English school founded in San Antonio in 1858? Why were row houses built in nineteenth-century cities?

Research initiated with a clear focus can lead outward into the complex web of community life. The particular topic chosen will help to illuminate the history of the larger community. As the broader context is developed, information about the topic itself will become more meaningful. This reciprocal process of historical understanding will not work without some kind of focus to the research. Historical inquiry must have direction. This does not mean that all students must work on a common problem, but that each topic must have focus.

The following chapters are organized topically to help provide a focus for local history projects. We have selected areas in which interesting work is now being done in local history classrooms or which seem especially promising in the future. They by no means define the field of local history. These are not the only areas in which teachers and students can fruitfully pursue local historical research.

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II

A SOCIAL HISTORY OF THE COMMUNITY

The social history of the community is a rich area for local historical investigation. It encompasses a great variety of possible topics. Indeed, there are nearly as many varieties of social history as there are social historians. Social history chapters in textbooks have included such diverse content as changing architectural styles, social problems and social reform movements, education, religion, sports, and entertainment. Most definitions of social history also include the history of the major ethnic and racial groups in American society. More recently a "new social history" has emerged which is concerned more with questions about social structure, social mobility, and the influence of cultural values on social behavior (Hays 1971). It has tended to focus on the family and the community as well as ethnic groups and racial minorities. In other words, social history has something of interest for almost everyone.

Social history topics and local historical research have proved to be highly compatible. Much of the recent social history research has been done at the level of individual community studies. These have included investigations of such diverse topics as the family in colonial towns, social mobility patterns in nineteenth-century cities, and voting behavior at the county and precinct level. Because of the numbers of people involved and often the great quantity of available data, it made good sense to limit the geographical area of the studies. More-traditional social histories have also benefited from the sharper focus that a single community affords. For example, studies limited to the Irish immigrants in Boston, the Jews in New York City, and the Italians in Chicago have added significantly to our understanding of the immigrant experience generally. Both the new and the traditional kinds of social history can be studied profitably at the local level.

Traditional social history has looked at American society from the top downward. For example, books on social reform usually have been written from the point of view of the social reformers. Studies

of social institutions and social thought have been concerned mainly with the prominent individuals involved. As one historian has summarized, "Until very recently, American social history was written from the perspective of the dominant culture. It dealt with elites rather than common people, with institutions rather than social processes, with attitudes rather than experiences" (Hareven 1971, p. vii). Although social historians were interested in the lives of ordinary people, they paid more attention to the presidents, union officials, and reform leaders who represented them. This is still a viable kind of social history and has many applications at the community level.

However, it has a serious rival for the attention of scholars and teachers. A different kind of social history has been gaining popularity during the past decade or so. This new social history reveals a shift of scale from a national, public, great-man-centered history to a grass-roots, ordinary-person-centered study of the past. It is more concerned with the "anonymous Americans" than with the elites. By using sources that traditional historians usually overlooked, it seeks to record the history of the masses of the people. Instead of letters, diaries, and the memoirs of public leaders, which told us a lot about the few, the sources of the new social history are lists and numbers that say a little about a great many individuals. Thus the new social history rests in large part upon quantifiable data, although these are usually supplemented by more traditional kinds of historical evidence.

This chapter describes several kinds of social history projects that can be performed at the upper elementary and the secondary school level. Some are based on new social history approaches using quantifiable data. Others are more traditional in approach and rely upon more-customary sources. As the methods and sources of the new social history are unfamiliar to many teachers, special attention needs to be given to these at the outset.

Quantitative Social History

The quantitative analysis of data is one of the distinguishing methods of the new social history. As a technique of historical

investigation, quantification has both strengths and weaknesses. It is a useful tool for some purposes, but not for others. Numerical data do not add much to our understanding of individuals and their motivation. The picturesque details of social life are seldom found in statistical tables. However, data that can be quantified may be highly useful for describing the characteristics that people have in common and "those patterns of human interaction which relate some people and differentiate others. . ." (Hays 1971, p. 329). Quantitative analysis is a useful tool for identifying, describing, and analyzing groups of people. The group may be as large as the entire population of the community or as small as the family unit. By counting and sorting, one can identify types of family organization, the relative sizes of ethnic groups, rates of geographical and social mobility, the ratio of skilled to unskilled workers, age distributions, sex ratios, and other patterns that help one to understand better the structure of the community. The kind of information obtained depends upon the sources used.

For classroom purposes some quantitative sources are more readily available and yield more information than others. City and county directories, manuscript census returns, and published census data are probably the most useful sources for most quantitative history projects. The directories list the names, addresses, and occupations for most of the adult members of the community. Some "lower class" and transient persons were at times overlooked or deliberately excluded. (See accompanying sample page of a city directory.)

Directories dating back at least to the mid-nineteenth century are available for many communities. Manuscript census returns are the sheets on which the census takers recorded their information during their house-to-house canvass. They are available on microfilm through the census of 1900, except for the 1890 returns, which were almost entirely destroyed by a fire in the National Archives. Although the kind of information they contain varies from census to census, they always include the names of all the people residing in a house, their ages, occupations, places of birth, and the birthplaces of each parent of the adult members of the family. This information

Figure 1

Page From the Boulder County Directory, 1896

FANCY GOODS McCLURE-WHITE MERCANTILE CO. 1227 TO 1235 PEARL STREET.

Church, Emily M Mrs, res 419 Mapleton ave.
Church, John L, res 1210 Pine st.
Church, Mary Miss, res 419 Mapleton ave.
Church, Seymour, res 1505 Walnut st.
Churchill, W D, carpenter, bds W C Dyer.
CITY HALL,
1923 14th st.
Citchen, Wm, teamster, bds Belvidere house.
CITY OFFICIALS,
see Appendix.
CITIZEN'S REFORM LEAGUE,
J W Day, sec, office 2027 15th st.
Clark, Albert, res Newland's add.
Clark, A E, engineer Boulder Electric Light Co, res 1239 Bluff st.
Clark, E D Dr, dental surgeon, room 21 (Rogers blk), 1221 Pearl st, res 1116 Bluff st.
Clark, E L Mrs, dressmaker, room 9 (Rogers blk), 1221 Pearl st, res do.
CLARK, D G,
photographer, 2028 14th st, res do.
CLARK, H H,
propr of The Fair, ladies', misses' & gents' furnishings, millinery and fancy goods, also agent for Home Sewing Machines, NW cor Pearl & 13th, res upstairs SE cor 13th & Pearl sts.
Clark, J A Mrs, res 1245 13th st.
Clark, J P, miner, res 507 Walnut st.
Clark, L D, res 507 Walnut st.
Clark, Margaret C Mrs, nurse, res 2037 16th st.
Clark, O P, groceries, 1400 Pearl st, res 1324 Pine st.
CLARK, S D,
mgr the Lee-Kinsey Implement Co, vehicles and implements of all kinds, 1132 to 1138 Pearl st, res Walnut st bet 15th & 16th.
CLARK, S P MRS,
milliner at The Fair, res SE cor 13th & Pearl st.
Clark, W F, carpenter, res 347 Pearl st.
CLAY, JAMES M,
whitener, housecleaner and kalsominer, res 802 Marine st.
Clemens, G F, quartz mill, res 24th st, ¼ mile S city limits.
Clemens, Will, res 12th st, Newland's add.
Clemmer, A D Mrs, state dairy commissioner, res 2205 Arapahoe ave.
Clemmer, J A, Deputy State Dairy Commisioner, res 2205 Ararphoe ave.
CLERGYMEN,
see classified business list.
CLUBS,
see Appendix.
COAN, ALONZO,
alderman 2d ward and mining, res 2205 8th st.
Coates, Edwin L, postmaster and propr Coates' vehicle and implement house, res Bowen hotel.
Cochran, W H, board of regents University of Colorado, res Del Norte.
Coffin, H M, teamster, res 734 Walnut.
Coffin, O C, rancher, res 2026 10th st.
Coffman, J W, teamster, res E of 12th st, Smith's grove.
Coffman, M H, lab, res E of 12th st, Smith's Grove.
Cohen, Thyrza, assistant State Preparatory School, bds Dining hall, University campus.
Cole, Cyrus, boots & shoes, 1332 Pearl st, res do.
COLLEGES,
see Appendix.
Collins, James, Typographic machinist, Boulder Herald, res 2137 Walnut st.
Collins, Mary Mrs, res 2137 Walnut st.
COLORADO BARN,
H R Eldred, propr, 2017 13th st, opp court house.
COLORADO SANITARIUM,
O G Place, M D, surgeon in charge, Mapleton ave at the entrance of Sunshine canon.
Colorado Telephone Co, H C Legge, agt, office Masonic Temple.
COLUMBIA CEMETERY,
Jno G Trezise, sec, office NW cor 11th & Pearl sts.
Colvin, Mary K Mrs, res 919 Pine st.
Combs, Fannie Mrs, res 2143 Spruce st.
Combs, G M, miner, res 2202 Grove st.
Combs, G W, res 2202 Grove st.
Combs, H L, miner, res 2217 Grove st.
Combs, Martha (M Combs & Co), res 1435 Pearl st.
Combs, Mary (M Combs & Co), res 1435 Pearl st.

was summarized in the published census volumes. However, the smallest unit for which most of the published information is reported is the county. The published census has limited utility for neighborhood and small-town studies. It is also impossible to identify individuals in the published returns. Other records such as property deeds, property tax records, school records, and marriage records are also available and may be useful for some quantitative social history projects.

School records are another valuable source of information for quantitative social history. A history curriculum development project undertaken in Pittsburgh relied primarily upon school records for information about the neighborhood surrounding the school. By drawing information from permanent pupil record cards for the years 1890 and 1920, the development team created packets of materials by which students could examine a variety of neighborhood changes. The cards yielded information about the age, sex, grade level, place of birth, and address of the students as well as the size of their family and the occupations of their parents. The development team supplemented this information with school yearbooks and other unofficial school records, along with maps and photographs of the neighborhood and statistical data. By comparing the information of the two periods, the students were able to examine a variety of neighborhood changes (Penna 1975).

The basic techniques of quantitative analysis are sufficiently simple that they can be used effectively by most secondary school students and by some upper elementary students. The principal task is to extract the necessary information from the sources and to record it in a way that will simplify later analysis. Data can be recorded on cards, which can be easily sorted; some form of coding is often helpful. Assuming that the class does not have access to computer facilities, the sorting can be done mechanically by using a needle sort, or by hand. A number of guidelines and manuals exist that provide instructions for coding and sorting (Davey 1974). The analysis of the data also requires only simple mathematical calculations. Of course, statistical data can also be manipulated in highly

sophisticated ways that require trained expertise. Such analysis will not be necessary for most secondary school quantitative history projects.

Street Biographies

The simplest kind of exercise that incorporates quantitative analysis into a local social history investigation is the construction of what has been called a "street biography." The term *biography* is something of a misnomer because the product is really a social profile of the street. The basic information to be used is the names, addresses, and occupations listed in a city or county directory. Listing and counting the names and occupations for a given street "can reveal the occupational structure within a community and, if compared over time, can indicate the extent of geographical mobility of that community by ascertaining what percentage of the inhabitants still lived at the same address five or ten years later. An extension of such a study might involve comparisons with the same area today, and thus perhaps some interdisciplinary work with other subjects such as geography and Man in Society, making use of mapping skills, interviewing techniques, and sociological interpretations" (Davey 1974, p. 14). The investigation can also be broadened by comparing the profiles of several streets within a community, an effective way for students to discover that social structure has a geographical dimension.

By drawing upon other sources of information, the students can develop other aspects of the social profile of the street. The manuscript census returns will give them information about the size of the families and the ages of family members who lived at the various addresses. This source will also provide information about the family's geographical mobility and important clues to its ethnic background by listing the place of birth for three generations. By counting and comparing the number of families of various national origins, the students can determine the extent to which the street was an ethnic neighborhood. By checking real estate tax rolls in the county records office, they can find the ratio of taxpaying home owners to renters in the neighborhood. School records may tell them something about school

attendance.

The street biography is also a useful device for integrating various kinds of local historical investigation. Its limited geographical focus provides an opportunity for bringing together data from quantitative and traditional social history sources. Newspaper accounts of events that took place on the street, records of churches and other social organizations located there, biographical sketches from obituaries and other sources, will provide a much fuller social history when integrated with the quantitative information. Similarly, the street biography can serve to integrate social and other kinds of historical evidence. The development of the street can be traced through city or county building permits. News items and advertisements in the local newspapers provide information about business openings and other aspects of economic history. Sanborn Insurance maps, which are described more fully in Section VII, contain accurate descriptions of the buildings at the various addresses. The biography of a street can provide the basis for an integrated learning experience.

Social History of the School

As one of the most ubiquitous and enduring of American social institutions, the school itself is a logical topic for a social history investigation (Newton 1973). The focus could be as narrow and as tangible as changes in school furniture and architecture, or as broad and abstract as the role of the school in the larger society. A curriculum guide produced by the State Department of Education of Ohio (*Frontier Ohio* n.d., p. 105) recommends an approach that falls somewhere between those extremes. It suggests that students compare their school with the early schools in their community through the analysis of such data as school budgets, enrollment by age and sex, kinds of courses offered, and number of teachers. Surely students undertaking such an investigation would discover both the changes within the school and the extent to which those changes are also reflections of change in the society beyond the school. It is precisely this sensitivity of the school to social change that makes it such a valuable point of departure for social history investigations.

Even the mundane question of how the school got its name may prove to be a fruitful avenue into the social history of the community. Elementary teachers have long used this exercise as a teaching device for various purposes. For that reason it may seem to be a childish exercise for secondary students. After all, is it not obvious why a high school is named Lincoln High or Central High or Bakersfield High? Not necessarily. Students at Philadelphia's Lincoln High School discovered that there was more than met the eye behind the naming of their school. They uncovered a history of neighborhood rivalries. "The immediate neighborhood, Mayfair, believed the school would carry its name while older sections such as Holmesburg would not accept the name Mayfair for the school. Thus it was called Lincoln to no one's satisfaction. Articles found in the local newspaper related background material concerning the histories of local communities, their rivalries and antagonisms" (Cullen 1975-76, pp. 15-16). The students were also delighted, no doubt, to learn that the site of the high school was once the county prison farm.

The history of a school can also become an avenue into the ethnic history of a community. Students in a fourth-year German class in San Antonio discovered this fact when they became interested in a German-English school that existed from 1858 to 1898 in that city. Their initial assignment was to translate the minutes of the school's board of directors as an exercise in learning to read pre-Satterlin German script. That, in turn, became a springboard to a larger ethnic history project. The students went on to collect information about the history of the school and its instructional routine, which was modeled after the *Gymnasium* system of the patron's native Prussia. By using records in the county court house, church membership rolls, gravestones, and records of German-American organizations, they compiled biographical information about the school's directors and several of its first pupils. By focusing on the school they had uncovered part of the history of the German-American community in nineteenth-century San Antonio. Their teacher was awarded a certificate of commendation by the American Association for State and Local History "for leading

students to a rich source of local history" (El-Beheri and Clayton 1975, p. 64).

Ethnic History

Ethnic history is one of the most obvious and fruitful areas for local social history research. In the first place, every community, whether it is a New England village or a Southwestern barrio, has an ethnic history. Most communities also have a history of ethnic conflict, in some instances dating back to settler-Indian confrontations. In a nation that seems to aspire to be both thoroughly assimilated and culturally pluralistic at the same time, ethnic history is also an avenue for investigating American social values and value conflicts. Moreover, ethnic history provides a bridge to family history and church history. It is a highly useful point of departure for examining the broader social history of a community.

Local history units concerned with ethnic history usually focus on a particular ethnic group. Thus a community-based social studies course developed for the Dade County, Florida, junior high schools focused on the Indians who lived in the Miami area (Friedman 1971). Afro-American local history projects are also rather common. Local black history was integrated into a set of instructional episodes developed by the Madison, Wisconsin, Public Schools to incorporate more black history into the schools' curricula (Madison Public Schools 1968). A recent yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies on teaching ethnic studies recommended local history projects for teaching about the experience of Mexican-Americans and white ethnic groups (Banks 1973). The tradition is so strong that one suspects this single ethnic group focus will remain the dominant approach to local ethnic history.

Student projects that use this approach frequently combine traditional social history content with modern oral history techniques. The local history projects completed by students in a black history course at the Lima campus of Ohio State University are typical. In an effort to bridge the gap between his students' developing awareness

cf black history nationally and their lack of knowledge about the experience of blacks in Lima, Dominic Candeloro (1973, pp. 24-29) assigned each student a five-page paper on local black history. A two-hour in-class interview with a local black leader produced a basic chronology and a list of topics that could be explored. From this information a questionnaire was developed concerning black participation in politics, religion, and the labor movement, as well as the participants' date of arrival in the city and how they were treated at various periods of time. Then the class assembled a list of resource persons to be interviewed. When completed the student papers were submitted to an editorial committee, which produced a mimeographed report titled "The Black History of Lima: A Preliminary Study." Although the instructor acknowledged that the results did not represent outstanding local history, "the very fact that the project has brought inexperienced white students into contact for the first time with numerous black figures in the community was enough to justify it."

Oral history research, which is useful for many kinds of local history investigations, is often indispensable for ethnic history projects. This is especially true for studying cultural minorities and lower-income groups generally. Newspapers and other print media have a notorious social bias. As Carlos E. Cortes (1973, p. 194) has pointed out, "Since the Mexican American generally has been neglected in local books, newspapers, and other written sources, only the fringe of his experience can be discovered through reading. This study process must be supplemented by oral investigation if students are to develop a true knowledge and understanding of local Mexican-American society, culture, and history." Much the same may also be true for European ethnic groups in communities in which they were a lower-class minority group. Cortes also urges those investigating Mexican-American history to interview the ordinary people in the barrio as well as the leaders of the community. Oral history can be a method for investigating social history in its broadest sense, which is history at the grass roots--history from the bottom up.

For this kind of ethnic history the techniques of quantitative analysis are also indispensable. Black history units developed by the Madison, Wisconsin, Public Schools demonstrate some of the options. A unit designed for the eleventh-grade American history course emphasized demographic aspects of the black experience by providing census data about black rural-to-urban and South-to-North migration since 1929. With this information the students could trace black migration to Wisconsin and to Madison. A fifth-grade unit developed by the same school district also included a map showing black residential distribution in Madison along with recent census information about jobs held by blacks (Madison Public Schools 1968). However, the use of such techniques in local history projects does not seem to be widespread. Yet in the case of earlier ethnic groups whose first- and second-generation members are no longer around for oral history interviews, the use of census and directory data may be the only way to uncover some aspects of their history.

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III

LOCAL ECONOMIC HISTORY

The economic history of a community provides numerous possibilities for local historical investigation. Most communities were begun because someone saw an economic opportunity in the land, the natural resources, or the trade of the surrounding area. Villages became towns and some towns grew into cities because increasing numbers of people found they could make a living there. Indeed, most aspects of a community's history prompt questions of an economic nature. Why were people attracted to the area? What were the first business establishments in the town? Why did the town grow? What kind of work did the newcomers find? Each of these obviously broad questions could produce several topics for investigation.

Given the great range of possibilities for local historical research, it is surprising that the literature about community history contains so few reports about local economic history projects. Economic history topics rank close to the top of the list in most curriculum guides and how-to-do-it manuals, but evidently not in classroom priorities. It could be that the local economy is such a pervasive reality that it is incorporated in some way in nearly every local history investigation and not dealt with separately. For whatever reason this situation exists, it will dictate a somewhat different approach for this chapter. Instead of reporting on current practices, it will be concerned largely with exploring possibilities.

The approaches to local economic history proposed in the following pages are highly selective and do not begin to exhaust the possibilities. They do have certain aspects in common. Each either incorporates or relies mainly on source material that can easily be photocopied or microfilmed by the teacher and brought into the classroom. These sources -- directories and census reports -- are available for most American communities. Each approach also provides a wide latitude for student involvement, and the sources lend themselves to inquiry learning in the classroom. Questions prompted in classroom

sessions can be pursued further as independent investigations by the students.

An Economic Profile: What Kind of Town?

Constructing an economic profile for some time in the past is a good way to begin exploring the economic history of a community. An economic profile is simply a list of the economic activities performed in the community organized in some convenient way. (See Figure 2 for a sample profile for Boulder, Colorado, in 1896.) The basic information required for such a profile can be obtained from business directories, which have been published annually in most states for the past hundred years or so. These directories list the towns and cities alphabetically, and under each town its business establishments and the professional persons (see Figure 3). Although such a profile does not provide the more-meaningful historical dimension of change over time, it does afford a snapshot, a static view, of the economic structure of a community at a specified time.

The purpose of the profile is to enable students to describe and analyze the economic base of the community at a selected time. They can see readily what kind of town it was -- industrial mill town, agricultural marketing center, resort town, or some other kind of community. Simple categories such as "Manufacturing," "Wholesaling/Retailing," and "Services" should suffice. Subcategories can be developed if useful. If the students already have a general idea about the kind of town it was, the initial exercise can take the form of testing their preconceptions.

Even if the completed economic profile contains few surprises, it will generate questions for classroom discussion and topics for independent research. The directory information for the town of Boulder, for example, indicated that the principal economic activities in the town in 1896 were retailing, agricultural marketing, and providing educational and other services. Most Boulder high school students would probably have guessed as much. Then as now the town had few manufacturing establishments. Several of those that did exist probably

Figure 2

An Economic Profile of Boulder, Colorado, 1896

Manufacturing

shoemakers (4)
iron foundry
marble and granite works
brick company
carpet weavers (2)
bakeries (3)
tailors (4)
dressmakers (3)
blacksmiths (8)
manufacturer of tobacco pipes, bicycles, and tires
wagon makers (3)
sheet iron and machine works
feed mills (2)
brewery
flour mill
cigar manufacturer
manufacturing co.
gold extraction co. (2)

Services

attorneys (17)
physicians (13)
barbers (7)
restaurants (6)
photographers (4)
electric light company
hotels (7)
music lessons
assayers (5)
churches (10)
stenographers (4)
college professors (18)
saloons (5)
post office
banks (4)
billiard halls (3)
sign and carriage painter
livery stables (8)
caterer
stage coach lines
dentists (2)
real estate offices (9)
library
hairdressing
laundry
architect
plumbers (2)
loans (2)
newspapers (3)
telephone exchange
insurance agents (3)
storage
sanitarium
civil and mining engineers (3)
job printer
undertaker

Wholesaling/Retailing/Marketing

liquor and cigar store
commission house
furnishing goods
implements and wagons (3)
boots and shoes (4)
crockery and dry goods
flour, feed, and produce
bicycle store
jewelers (3)
greenhouse
millinery shop
lumber yards (4)
dry goods stores (5)
coal yards (2)
wood yard
harnesses and saddles
sewing machines
general merchandise
groceries (15)
confectionery and tobacco stores (5)
meat markets (6)
clothing stores (2)
drug stores (5)
book seller
wall paper and paint store
fruit growers association
ore buyer and sampler
hardware stores (3)
furniture stores (3)
second hand goods (5)
news shop
silks and merchandise

Construction

carpenters (2)
plasterer
contractors and builders
painter

Figure 2 (continued)

Transportation

hack and express
stage coach lines (2)
freighter
expressman
transfer company
railroad depot

Government

justices of the peace (2)
sheriff
police/magistrates (2)
county clerk
notaries public (4)
district judge
marshals (2)
constable
assessor
city clerk
coroner

Figure 3

Page from the Colorado State Business Directory, 1896

HUGHES & KEITH FINE PLUMBING Hot Water & Steam Heating Electric & Gas Fixtures
1641-47 California Street, DENVER.
PLUMBING & CHANDELIER CO. ... JOHN SYLVANUS, Assignee.

A. B. MEGREW, UNITED STATES SCHOOL FURNITURE CO. GENERAL AGENT 1808 LARIMER ST., DENVER.

COUNTY SURVEYOR BOULDER COUNTY.
CITY ENGINEER BOULDER CITY.

GEORGE W. TEAL,
Civil and Mining Engineer.
U. S. Deputy Mineral Surveyor.
BOULDER, COLO.

Adams, Geo. S, atty.
Adams, Guy A, atty.
Adventist Church, no pastor.
Allen, H W, physician.
Allen, J M, merchant tailor.
Ambrook, Chas., physician.
Ambrook, Mary L, physician
Anderson, F L, barber.
Angove & Sons, gen. mdse.
Autrey, A E, groceries.
BABCOCK-WELLS, CO., groceries.
Bailey, Mrs. J A, restaurant.
BAKER, JAS. H, president University of Colorado.
Baptist Church, E G Lane, p.
Baptist, (Seventh Day) S R Wheeler, pastor.
Barter, John, con. cig. & tob.
Bartlett, R, dgs. & physician.
Bass, L P, photographer.
Battey, physician.
Baylor & Co, C N, commission and groceries.
Bedford E V, meat mkt.
Bell, Delphine, prof. Univ. of Colorado.
Belser, C W, prof. Univ. of Colorado.
Belvidere House, Mrs J B Martin, prop.
Berger, Jacob, shoemaker.
Bercheim & Co, J, clothing.
BERKEY, JUNIUS, co. atty
Black Sisters, photographers.
Blackburn & Earl, groceries & tinware.
Blake & Co, G B, druggists and booksellers.
BLISS & HOLBROOK, groceries.
Board Regents Univ. of Colo. S A Giffin, sec.
Boeck Bros, drugs.
BOND, I L, pres't Boulder Electric Light Co.
Borden, E J, justice peace.
Borden, Albert W, co. clerk.
BOUGHTON, J H, dist judge
Boulder Board of Trade—W H Allison, pres; W H McLeod, sec; E L Contes, trs.
BOULDER CITY BREWING CO. Frank Weisenhorn, pres; Sam'l C Young sec. and treas.
Boulder City Feed Mill, C W Renkes, prop.
BOULDER CLUB, Geo M McClure pres; J L Church sec.
Boulder County Abstract of Title Co, J L Moorhead, sec & treas; James Cowie,

Denver and Rio Grande Railroad "Scenic Line" of the world.
Through Trains to Every Resort, Mining Camp and Business Center in Colorado.
Through Pullman Car Service to Salt Lake City and San Francisco.

The Albany Hotel
17th & Stout Sts., DENVER, COLO.
AMERICAN PLAN, $2.00 a day and upwards.
EUROPEAN PLAN, $1.00 a day and upwards.
First-class in all things. Best location in the city.
J. D. FANNING, Manager.
Formerly of Chicago Hotels

were small shops performing custom work. However, the iron foundry, the marble works, and the pipe, bicycle, and tire manufacturer invite further inquiry. Were these large establishments once important to the town but now forgotten? For how many persons did they provide employment? How long did the bicycle manufacturer survive the competition from the big manufacturers with a national market?

The purpose of the economic profile is to provoke questions that will lead the students to other sources of information. It may well trigger a continuing process of inquiry. As the business directory from which the profile was constructed gives no information about the size of various businesses, numbers of employees, or value of goods and services produced, students interested in those questions would need to look elsewhere. Much of the necessary information can be brought into the classroom if the teacher has only a minimal photocopying budget. Information about manufacturing in the community -- at least, for the county in which it is located -- can be found in the published volumes of the federal census. For some decennial years for the larger cities, the census tables even list the number of persons employed in a given industry and the average number of employees per firm. The city or county directories that list occupations and sometimes the place of work for each resident are another valuable source of information. Facts obtained from these sources can raise still other questions and suggest other lines of inquiry. For example, the city directories give the occupations of women who worked. What jobs were available to women? Were they represented in the professions? Was the presence of women doctors in Boulder in 1896 typical or exceptional?

Economic data from two census periods or directory years can help give students a sense of economic change taking place in the community. In *Teaching the Age of Homespun* (1965, p. 64), the state and local history guide for junior high schools in New York State, the compiler, Hazel Hertzberg, developed activities using sets of economic history data. As an example for teachers to apply in their own locality, we cite the tables she developed on agriculture and manufacturing for the

town of Cazenovia and the county in which the town was located, based on the New York State census of 1825 and 1855. The range of possibilities is suggested by several of the inquiry questions she posed:

Q. Which 1855 industries were also found in 1825? Which period had the greater variety of industries?

Q. In 1825, industries were almost all farm-related. Did this same pattern hold true in 1855?

Q. Which industries depended on local materials for their manufacture?

Q. To what extent was industry specialized in 1855 as compared with 1825?

Q. Did the *general store* still exist in 1855?

Q. How does the quantity of cloth produced at home in 1855 compare with the quantity produced in 1825?

Q. In which period, 1820s or 1850s, was the farmer more involved in a money economy?

Although other kinds of questions would be necessary for later time periods, the approach would be just as effective.

Occupations Then and Now

The most important economic reality in the lives of most persons is their job. It largely determines their income, their standard of living, their sense of economic security, and the degree of satisfaction that they derive from work. Changes in job opportunities and work routines affect people in a most fundamental way. This dimension of economic change is a topic well worth investigating for any community. Although high school students may not yet be making a living for themselves, they are sufficiently close to that prospect that the topic is of interest to them. It is also a vehicle for examining other aspects of economic and social change.

The best sources for investigating changing occupational patterns in a community are the city and county directories mentioned before. Copies of early directories can usually be found in public libraries and local historical society collections. Since these are rare books, the directories will probably not be available for loan. The students will need to use them in the public library or wherever they are.

However, an inquiry into occupational change can begin in the classroom if the teacher can provide photocopies of at least sample pages of an early directory. A copy of an entire directory for one year would be even better.

A few moments spent browsing through a nineteenth-century city directory will lead to a number of interesting observations. Perhaps most striking is the number of occupations listed then which no longer exist. Half a dozen or so pages of the 1896 Boulder County directory, for example, contained the following discontinued jobs: lather, coopersmith, blacksmith, milker, tinsmith, shoemaker, carriage trimmer, hostler, harness maker, and kalsominer. A search through the entire directory would expand the list considerably. A nineteenth-century factory town or mining town might produce a somewhat different list, but the same pattern of obsolete occupations would emerge.

A list of obsolete occupations provides an obvious point of departure for a lesson on local and national economic change. The question must first be asked: What kind of work did people in those occupations do? Harness makers, shoemakers, milkers, and others are obvious. But what about the coopersmith, the lather, and the kalsominer? Finding out about them may provide several students with out-of-class projects. Interviews with local tradesmen and elderly citizens would probably be necessary. The next question is: Why did these occupations cease to exist? Did some economic of technological change make the occupations obsolete?

Many other dimensions of economic and social change in and beyond the community can be examined by constructing other kinds of occupational lists. Some jobs still exist, but are much less common than before. Many women listed in nineteenth-century directories were domestic servants who lived in their employer's house. Although some employers of servants may have been wealthy, others were farmers and middle-class professional and business people. The day of the live-in servant for this stratum of society has long since passed. Why? How have life styles in the community changed as a consequence?

Other jobs may no longer be available in the community, although they still exist elsewhere. Two or three generations ago nearly every town of a few thousand inhabitants had its local brewery, made some of the wagons used locally, and manufactured shoes and other wearing apparel. Few do so today. The exodus of such occupations provides concrete evidence of the centralization of production and the transportation and marketing revolutions that have occurred during the past century.

Virtually every aspect of the changes that we associated with industrialization is reflected in the work people do. The local glassware factory may have survived since the nineteenth century, but the skilled glass blowers have largely become machine operators. Furniture makers may still do skilled hand work, but the leisurely pace of work in the old-time craftsman's shop has been replaced by the industrial discipline of the factory. The half-dozen craftsmen who used to work in a small shop downtown have become a work group of five hundred in the factory at the edge of town. Local occupational data can serve in many ways to illustrate major economic changes that have affected American society.

Studying local economic history through occupational analysis need not be restricted to urban communities. Agricultural work changes also. "The completely rural town has witnessed shifts in agricultural specialization. For example, a small Vermont town was settled by people whose chief income came from the sale of potash. The children or grandchildren of those settlers raised Merino sheep and Morgan horses. The present farmers rely on their dairies and the income from milk shipped to industrial cities" (Brown and Tyrrell 1961, p. 7). As in urban America, the changes in rural life are largely the result of changes in technology.

A field trip consisting of only a short drive into the nearest rural countryside is perhaps the best way for students to discover the accelerating changes in agricultural technology. Farm equipment and buildings have become archaeological relics and museum pieces long before they are worn out from use. "The plow which broke the

plains molders behind the barn. Or, more recently, it supports the new mail box. Old machines, such as the ancient monsters used for threshing, are wondrous to behold and are marked by an impressive kind of beauty. While contemporary artists work with burner and welding torch, much equally interesting art or craft equipment from another day goes quietly to rust" (Friou n.d., pp. 3-4). Changes in the agricultural economy can provide a focus for numerous oral history and agricultural archaeology projects.

Our Town: Individual Patterns of Change

While sharing much in common, communities have also had unique historical experiences. The economic and technological changes mentioned previously affected communities in different ways. Railroads passed through some towns while by-passing others. Some towns grew into cities; others hardly grew at all. As major industries migrated from one section of the country to another, one community's gain was often another community's loss. Agricultural communities changed, but not everywhere in the same way. Some rural communities yielded to an encroaching suburbia; others lost population as farms grew larger. Even quite similar communities have responded to problems and opportunities in distinctive ways.

Investigating these diverse patterns of change within a community is the most traditional approach to local economic history. It is the basis of much of the booster-type, Chamber of Commerce-inspired local history that has been written over the years. But local history need not be promotional history. It is not necessary to assume that "our town" is better because it is different. Its history does not have to be a success story to be of educational value.

Two Sturbridge, Massachusetts, social studies teachers (George and Castendyk 1975, pp. 470-474), developed a local history unit about a town that failed to realize its early industrial potential. They selected for investigation the nearby town of Wales, which is now just a sleepy summer recreational community of a thousand persons. However, initial investigation uncovered the earlier existence of an

extensive textile mill complex. "This was a surprise and provoked many questions on our part. . . . *What happened?* Why did these mills die when all around us we have communities in which industry thrived well into the twentieth century?" The project became a search for the answers to these questions.

The disappearance of the textile mills became the focus for a wide-ranging multidisciplinary investigation. To identify geographical features and land-use patterns that might have affected the local economy, the students examined road maps, topographical maps, and land use maps. On-site field studies led them through the woods and beyond the mill pond to the canals, sluiceways, and ruins of the old water-powered mills. By using gazetteers and nineteenth-century industrial statistics, they were able to chart economic trends for that area over several decades. Research by the teachers produced a telltale stationery letterhead that gave Wales as the address for the mill, but Palmer as the freight office address. A notice of bankruptcy proceedings against one of the principal mills in the town indicated that the crisis was an economic one. After weighing the evidence, the students concluded that the lack of a local railroad must have been a significant factor in the closing of the mills.

Students can gain as much insight into economic change from the history of communities that were not successful as they can from the success stories. Every section of the country has its nonsuccess stories, including towns that have largely disappeared. We associate the term "ghost town" with the mining industry of the West only because the abandoned towns there remain physically the best preserved. The economic history of eastern and midwestern states can also be illustrated by deserted communities and abandoned farms. Gene E. Rooze (1969, p. 349) developed a local history unit that utilizes both. The farm is now part of a national forest; the community once served as an agricultural marketplace. "The marginal farms, abandoned because of their low productivity, now serve as recreational areas for metropolitan centers once inaccessible because of existing modes of

transportation and communication. The rural area once had mines, which were almost all abandoned because of production costs." The towns in the area that survived did so as manufacturing centers. They were able to attract factories because they had a surplus labor supply. Thus one community's failure became another town's success.

Although the economic history of each community represents a distinctive pattern of failure or success, each can be understood only in the larger context of region and nation. It is this interdependency which makes both the successes and the failures useful learning tools.

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IV

FAMILY HISTORY

Techniques for using family history as assignments in the classroom are varied. Perhaps most widely used is the genealogical-family tree approach. Increasingly, however, teachers are using family history in a more sophisticated manner. Some are having students "map" or chart generational differences in family life style by having students take surveys of common age-set activities engaged in by their parents and grandparents. Others have students choose an organizing theme, such as immigration and adaptation to American life, the religious involvement of the family over several generations, or rural-to-urban migration (Jeffrey 1974, p. 368). These activities normally use the student's own family.

Still other teachers do not have students work with their own families at all. Instead, they choose one or two prominent families in the particular community and assign groups of students to research the impact such families might have had on their town. Many teachers adapt to local studies some family history activities that were originally developed for such courses as American history, women's studies, and ethnic studies. Finally, some elementary students are learning the uses of quantitative analysis in compiling a family history. They learn to use maps, charts, and graphs, and how to make cross tabulations and frequency distributions.

Getting Started

For younger students it is best to initiate a family history project with a personal approach. The teacher might start by drawing a time line on the chalkboard, beginning with the year most students were born and running to the present. Above the starting point the teacher writes the number of students who were born in the community; the next mark is for those who moved to the area during their first year of life, and so on through all the years to the present time. Students can then analyze the tabulated results for each year: Is

there an increasing number of newcomers each year? Was there an especially large gain in any one year? What might be the reasons persons would choose to move to this community? Do those students who were born here have a greater feeling of loyalty to the community than those who came later? Why might that be? As a follow-up to this class discussion, students can question their parents to see if they know why the family chose this particular town or city. Families that are recent arrivals and those that have been in the community for several generations may have different reasons. This inquiry can be followed by other exercises with time lines.

Another time line can be drawn on the chalkboard to show the earliest memory the individuals in the classroom have of national and international events. The teacher might begin by asking whether any of the students remember Kennedy's assassination or the first landing on the moon. Students will volunteer memories of such events as Dr. Martin Luther King's death, the war in Vietnam, and the Watergate conspiracy. They might then be asked if they can remember how the community responded to the event. Were there memorial services for Dr. King? Were there demonstrations during the Vietnam affair?

The next step is to ask whether they have any personal memories of the event. Can they recall the attitude of their family? Was there an atmosphere of sorrow, anger, or fear? At this point the students can be asked to look at one of these memories as one would look at a painting, noticing the foreground, the background, the colors and shadings, the attitudes and perspectives of the people. Finally, students may be asked to stand away from the memory, just as one would from a painting, and try to see the broader perspective beyond the frame of the picture, to add approximate time, place, and the response of others in the situation.

Katherine Anne Porter (1975, pp. 102-106) in "Notes on the Texas I Remember," provides an excellent example of how such personal memories can illuminate the attitudes, texture, and flavor of a community. Her specific memories, short flashes of the past, give

one an opportunity to see Kyle, Texas, just as it was at the turn of the century. She vividly notes attitudes toward other social classes and describes ethnic discrimination. After students read this essay, they can be asked to write one of their own, choosing just one or two memories that will give them a picture of their own family, town, or neighborhood. The major question should be: What insight about yourself, the time and place in which you lived, and the persons involved did you gain? Papers must be confidential between teacher and student, but the memories of the local community could be shared with the whole class.

During a discussion students may be asked to jot down items that explain or describe the community. They may then be told that what they have just done is to integrate themselves into the history of their own town. They can now see themselves as participants in history as well as observers. They should then be encouraged to take the same approach when they develop their family histories. This warm-up exercise encouraged the production of a family history that is more than just a listing of begats and occupations (Maslowski and Metcalf 1976).

Studying the Family History

One excellent format for preparing a family history paper was developed by David Culbert (1973, pp. 9-13) of Louisiana State University, who found it to be useful as an assignment for his United States survey course. The detailed written directions that he gave to his students included a description of the difference between a genealogical report and a social history; a very complete discussion of how to interview, what kinds of questions to ask, and what kinds of sources to use; and a list of the items to be included in the final paper. He suggests the following division of the paper: "(1) Note on sources; (2) life of one grandmother up to marriage; (3) life of the man she married up to time of marriage; (4) their married life together. Then the same arrangement for your other grandparents; then your parents."

Additional information which Culbert suggests to make such a report more interesting includes a map showing all the communities family members had lived in; photographs of the people and places mentioned; copies of old letters, pages from diaries or ledger books, and even marriage licenses. One instruction Culbert issues to his students is that they be careful to describe how even simple tasks were performed years ago. He points out that few of us today know much about farming; even fewer of us would know how to go about hitching up a horse and wagon. Perhaps the most important point Culbert makes to his students is that the information about life in America for the average person is of vital importance for the historian. "History too often is the thoughts and actions of elite groups because poor people do not preserve records of what they have done," he says.

A slightly different approach to family history that can be used in a local history or American history course is the biographical approach. One example is the method used by Sharon Menard (1974) in the mini-course "Women in American Culture." Young women may discover the great changes in the lives of typical women in the past two generations of American society -- the point of the exercise -- but young men must find that their role also has undergone as dramatic a change.

Students are asked to write short biographies of one parent, including such information as place of birth, activities with their parent of the same sex, activities with the other parent, activities with siblings or neighborhood children. Questions about teenage years include such things as: How old were you on your first date? Did you finish high school? What are some things a girl/boy can do today that they couldn't when you were young? Other categories include marriage and family, earning a living, and an open category in which the student asks about any aspects of his parents' history that seem important to her/him.

After the biography has been written, students are asked to fill out a retrieval chart, "Similarities and Differences Between Generations." The horizontal categories are Early Life, Adolescence,

Marriage/Family, Earning a Living, and Final Chapter. The two vertical columns are Similarities to My Life and Differences from My Life. Many intriguing aspects of the community may emerge from such charts. One example is that in a particular mountain community the black children knew the trails and climbing areas better than anyone else in town. During the 1930s, it was the only recreational activity they were allowed to take part in. Menard states firmly that teachers must warn students that they are working with a very small sample of persons in the town. They must not, she stresses, make sweeping generalizations from the data.

The uses of family questionnaires could serve much the same purpose. Anne Boylan (1977, pp. 211-219) developed a survey form that students used to obtain information from their mothers and grandmothers. Data included age at first marriage, number of children and year of birth of each, work experience, and education. Returned surveys were tabulated (Boylan suggests that surveys might have been designed for coding and computer analysis) and tables were constructed to show the information by ten-year birth cohorts. These data were then compared with like information for American women as a whole. Considerable discussion and analysis developed from the surveys.

Boylan used a similar approach in a course on nineteenth-century social history. This time she used surveys to introduce the concepts of social class and social mobility. She thinks that topics such as assimilation or secularization could be approached through surveys on the ethnic and religious backgrounds of the students. The depression or World War II might be personalized through a survey of parents' or grandparents' experiences. Boylan believes that through the questionnaires "students acquire a consciousness of their own histories and of themselves as historical beings."

Although Culbert and Menard offer their own caveats, some additional warnings have been voiced by Kirk Jeffrey (1974, pp. 365-373) of Carleton College. First, he suggests that a family history assignment *must* be offered as an *option*. Some students have painful family relationships or have truly embarrassing situations they would not

wish to discuss; one of Jeffrey's own students had two murderers in the family. Another problem is that high school as well as college students may have difficulty meeting with family members for interviews. In some cases letters will suffice, but by the time a series of letters has been sent and received, the quarter or semester may be long over. Second, because the family histories will be so varied, the instructor should make it very clear that the organization and presentation of the material can legitimately take many different forms. Jeffrey's stipulation to his students is that the paper must in some way be related to larger social trends. The third caution that he stresses is that students be given a great deal of help in research techniques, sources which might be consulted, and specific types of questions that might be asked.

On the positive side, Jeffrey makes three points: First, the assignment enlivens the study of history by enabling students to work with real human beings and study social processes in microcosm. Second, it introduces students to some of the real problems which working historians face. Third, the project -- if effectively managed -- can serve the local community in which a school is located and the larger community of American historians by promoting widespread interest in community history and in the preservation of the historical record (Jeffrey 1976, p. 22).

Teachers new to the idea of using family histories will want to consult and read carefully the complete Jeffrey article of 1976. He includes syllabi from courses at Washington University, the University of Missouri at St. Louis, and Illinois Central College, as well as an extensive bibliography. This includes "Guidelines for Family Biography," "Biographies of Notable American Families," and "Scholarly Writings in the Field of American Family History" (Jeffrey 1976, pp. 36-41).

Another important source is the guide prepared in 1973 by the Anonymous Families History Project. Founded in 1970 by social historians Richard D. Brown and Tamara K. Hareven, it intends "to involve college students in writing history at first hand by writing histories

of their own families; and to make the information they gather and the views they express available to professional historians as data for social research." Although this collection is maintained by Professor John Modell at the University of Minnesota, the guidelines are available only from Professor Hareven, Anonymous Families History Project, Department of History, Clark University, Worcester, Massachusetts 01610. The guide contains questions for interviews, methods of oral history interviewing, sample forms for recording demographic information, and instructions about how the archive handles student papers. This guide also includes a select bibliography.

Studying the History of Other Families

Still another approach to family history is the study of several families that have been important in the community's development. Students might discover the names of these families while taking a walking tour of the downtown area of a city. They might be challenged to look for plaques on commercial buildings, names inscribed (usually just below the cornice) on buildings, and monuments or statues dedicated to particular persons who played an important role in the development of the community. Other sources for such information include early plat maps of the city -- "The Squires Addition," for example -- and, of course, old newspapers that reported on social, political, and economic events of the past.

Once the names of important families have been located, students working alone or in small groups can try to find living members of the family through the telephone book or the city directory. Oral interviews with these persons and with their friends often uncover considerable local history. In addition, students may find diaries, journals, photographs, wills, probate inventories, tax records, church records, and the vital statistic records of birth, marriage, and death. Frequently, students can trace a family back for several generations using these data and many years of newspaper records. News items are an obvious source, and students should be reminded that advertisements can often explain a good deal about the rise and perhaps the fall of a family's fortunes.

Frequently such a project ties in well with a study of local architecture. By using plat maps and old city directories, students can learn the different locations at which a family lived; sometimes the houses are still standing, and again the rise or fall of family fortunes is indicated, sometimes dramatically. If the family residence has become a historic site museum -- a movement that is occurring all over the country -- students might engage in a number of activities generated by the house itself. Examples of that use are described later in the chapter on architecture.

An excellent example of how one family's history was used in conjunction with many other activities can be found in Project Probe, developed by the Catskill Area School Council and the Board of Cooperative School Services in Oneonta, New York. *Experiencing the Age of Homespun with J. Y. Brown* describes a tailor of the 1840s and 1850s who lived in Windsor, New York. Basic resources were portions of his diary and those of his two wives. A number of activities were developed from this information about the Brown family. Map exercises traced movements described in the diary; genealogical charts were made of the people mentioned; and a comparison was made of how the ways the Brown family used their time differed from the ways modern Americans use theirs. Churches and graveyards mentioned in the diary were also studied. Researchers taped an interview with an elderly lady from the community who remembered one of Brown's sons (Project Probe 1968). This is a superb example of how one aspect of local history can lead into a large realm of activities for student and teacher research.

Quantitative Family History

Perhaps the most exciting and innovative use of family history is that developed for use in British schools and adapted to western Canadian schools (Steel and Taylor 1974) as part of a comprehensive school reorganization. The two curriculum developers, along with groups of local teachers, decided that the past must be related to the students' immediate experience if they were to understand history at all. To accomplish this goal they developed a five-generation study,

divided into three phases. "Who Am I?" is used for students to relate their own lives to the lives of their families -- nuclear and extended. After working with charts and family trees, students write autobiographies. This exercise provides them with first-hand experiences in handling photographs, certificates, oral interviews, and even toys as historical documents.

After this initial look at their own lives, students study the lives of their parents and grandparents. The emphasis here is on the experiences of these persons when they were the age of the present-day students. Items of inquiry include school experiences, holiday celebrations, games, work experiences, and similar subjects. The memories that students collect are reproduced in extensive essays.

Once all members of the class have finished their papers, the data contained in them are extrapolated for the class to process. Maps of family moves, graphs and charts of occupations, wages, and school-leaving ages are developed. Every conceivable item is counted and tabulated. Students then try to develop hypotheses and to test generalizations about the meaning of the data. If this is done over a large area and over a fairly long period of time, knowledge of the social history of the area will be much more substantial.

Since the history of western Canada is more or less contained in the history of the past three generations, this particular study also makes an excellent introduction to regional history. At the same time, it is teaching students many of the skills necessary for studying any history. The developers consider the most important realization students develop to be "that history is a tool for the understanding of human existence" (Steel and Taylor 1974, p. 25).

Teachers who are new to quantitative studies will find value in Pene Davey's article "Quantitative Methods in the Study of Local History" (1974, pp. 6-19). Although this, too, was written for a Canadian audience, the research design she suggests can be easily adapted to studies in the United States. If one is interested in the topic of family patterns and structures in a particular community during the nineteenth century and comparing them to today, there are several steps

to take. First, one would need to code a manuscript census of 1870, say, and code and link a local tax assessment roll of the same period. Second, one would code comparable data for 1970. Questions such as the following might be asked: What was the composition of typical families at various economic levels of society? At what ages did people go to school, start work, leave home, marry, and so forth? Which families tended to own their own homes? What factors tended to affect family size? What were the characteristics of families who had servants? Teachers may add other pertinent questions.

Students attempt to answer the questions in step three. They can use 5-inch by 8-inch cards ruled into "boxes" for the number of items being considered. By cross tabulations and by frequency distributions, the data can be analyzed and tested for generalizations that might be made about the differences in family patterns and structures in the two time periods.

Ronald Wheeler and Kevin P. Kelly (1975, pp. 484-488) have developed a quantitative approach that even very young students can handle. These authors suggest that a teacher might want to start the study by focusing on just one aspect of the family. Family size can quickly be established for each member of the class. Then the average family size can be computed. Next, students might take questionnaires home to find out the size of their parents', grandparents', and even great-grandparents' families. When this information has been returned and tabulated, students will begin to consider precisely the same kinds of questions that concern professional historians: Does family size change through generations? If so, why? What variables might affect change?

Whereas a professional historian might go to such sources as census records to obtain the answers to some of his questions, the authors suggest that students continue to use data from their own classroom and homes. Other questions that might be considered include place of birth, number of moves, and occupations. If all of these are used, teachers should help students to enumerate, group, and label questionnaire items, and then help them to reach tentative conclusions

by asking a number of questions. The authors believe that if children have the opportunity to deal with a number of variables, they will begin to realize the theory of historical inquiry as well as the pervasive influence of the family as a social institution.

Many other developers of curricula in this field agree. What is consistently stressed is that using family histories in the classroom will provide students with much more than an increased sense of family continuity. Studies that compare generations for differences in family activities, in family use of living space, in male-female roles, in number of generations living in a household -- all of these can help a student discover how his own family fits into the broader scope of the social history of the local community, the region, the nation, and even the world. Students who can analyze family patterns in one society may realize that social class and economic status are often occupation based, that sex often determines the social roles played by family members, and that total family behavior patterns may be more comparable between a farm family in Minnesota and one in Sweden than between the Minnesota family and one that lives in a Manhattan high-rise.

Additional Sources

Since the publication of Alex Haley's *Roots* in 1976 many popular national magazines have carried articles on how to compile family histories. Many of these are quite good and belong in a teacher's files. Three books that are especially useful are Gilbert Harry Doane's *Searching for Your Ancestors* (1974), George B. Everton's *Handy Book for Genealogists* (1971), and Suzanne Hilton's *Who Do You Think You Are? Digging for Your Family Roots* (1976).

Government publications are available from several departments. A free Genealogical Information Kit can be ordered from Military Service Records (NNCC), National Archives (GSA), Washington, D.C. 20408. The kit contains order forms for census records, order forms for passenger lists, order forms for veteran records (Civil War), and four pamphlets describing the services of the National Archives:

National Archives of the U.S., Genealogical Records in the National Archives, Genealogical Sources Outside the National Archives, and *Military Service Records in the National Archives.*

One may write to the Superintendent of Documents (U.S. Government Printing Office, North Capitol and H Streets, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20402) for the following inexpensive items: *Guide to Genealogical Records in the National Archives* ($.65), *Where to Write for Birth and Death Records* ($.15), *Where to Write for Marriage Records* ($.15), and *Where to Write for Divorce Records* ($.10).

Records pertaining to veterans of World Wars I and II may be found at the National Personnel Records Center (GSA, Military Personnel Records, 9700 Page Boulevard, St. Louis, Missouri 63132). The General Reference and Bibliography Division of the Library of Congress (Washington, D.C. 20540) will send two useful bibliographies free of charge. They are *Guides to Genealogical Research and Surnames: A Selected List of Books.*

By Far the most extensive collection of family histories is that to be found in the archives of the Mormons. They have also developed a number of guides on procedures and sources of information. For a list of these publications one should write to: Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints, Genealogical Department Library, 50 East North Temple Street, Salt Lake City, Utah 84150.

Finally, perhaps the most important source for teachers is the local genealogical society or local family history buffs. Many of these persons are highly skilled in the special techniques of research of this type, and many of them are delighted to come to school and share their knowledge with students. They can normally be located through a local historical society, the public library, or news briefs in the local newspaper.

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V

ARCHITECTURE AND PUBLIC ART

The use of architecture and public art can provide an exciting dimension to a local history study. Architecture is a reflection of the history of the town and of the people who lived there. It embodies the values of the people and the way they integrated their values into their immediate environment. The styles of the buildings reflect the backgrounds of the people who built them; they may reveal ethnic identification, social class, and in some cases the previous regional heritage of the original settlers.

Through observation of the relationship of buildings to their settings, students can learn to extend their definition of environment to include man-built features. They can learn that attention to architectural detail and knowledge about popular styles will enable them to discover the period in which a structure or a neighborhood was built. They may also be able to discover the economic status of the people who had it built. Methods of construction reflect the state of the technology at a particular time. "Balloon" construction, for example, the technique used in most residential construction today, did not emerge until the 1830s. Knowing this simple fact can help date a neighborhood.

Beyond an examination of the buildings themselves, a study might incorporate the use of open spaces in the neighborhood or city, the patterns of the street system, and the particular street furnishings used. The city itself can become an artifact, and the study of it can be used to develop skills in historical methodology and the use of primary source materials. Two of the newer social sciences, historical archaeology and industrial archaeology, provide means for students to learn new skills and to preserve in tangible ways their own particular heritage.

Finally, architectural history is an important aspect of the humanities. Man's creative efforts are always a part of his total history, and whether architecture reflects or leads popular taste is

not nearly so important as the fact that it is the product of the values of the past.

The public art of the community is also a reflection of values. Even a cursory examination of the public art of the community -- the war memorials, the statue of a founding father, a representative sculpture in a public park -- will help students to understand the types of heroes and symbols the town revered in the past.

Getting Started

A strategy for involving students in the study of architecture has been developed by Catherine Taylor (Taylor et al., 1977). A free-lance specialist in curriculum design and a photographer, Taylor suggests three levels of inquiry that are particularly appropriate for school children and that are fairly simple for the classroom teacher to develop. She bases all of these on the strategy of the walking tour. The first level is "just looking." Many of us, she says, have felt a simple moment of delight or enchantment when we have noticed, for the first time, an ornate arch over a window, the way the light is reflected off an old cast-iron store front, or a piece of gingerbread trim which enhances the porch of an otherwise modest cottage.

We can recreate that experience for our students. Choosing elements that are common in a neighborhood near the school -- or one that can be reached quickly on a field trip -- she sketches and labels these on the field trip guide. Students are asked to find the architectural detail and write down the building name or address where they found it. Architectural details that might be included in such an exercise include lintels, Romanesque arches, tie-rod anchors or verge boards. The specific details chosen are not important. What does matter is the fact that students must observe carefully. Soon they invariably remark, "I never noticed that before!" That is the point of "just looking." Few persons ever see much of their immediate environment. Since architecture demands that we be acute observers of detail as well as of such aspects as site, function,

proportion, and symmetry, this makes a good beginning exercise for both elementary and secondary students.

Taylor's second approach, "with a minimum of effort," involves some simple research and the preparation of short activities. She suggests a quick reading of local histories in books, pamphlets, or newspaper articles. This activity not only will provide the teacher -- who might well be a newcomer to the region -- with an overview of the area's development, but also will usually pinpoint the most significant architectural landmarks. It will also help in the choice of a location for more-detailed study.

The next step is to visit the local historical society and the public library. The staffs at both of these facilities will often be able to locate quickly the materials they have that relate to the chosen buildings or neighborhoods. City and county planning offices or historic preservation offices are other good sources for materials.

The next procedure is to photocopy or duplicate on slides any of the written materials, maps, and photographs that relate to the topic and that will intrigue the students. One impressive example of this exercise was a series of color slides that she made of sections of several old Sanborn Insurance maps. These were enlarged and copied in color. Students could then easily compare the number of buildings in different time periods and the types of building materials that were most popular in particular decades.

All of these materials are used in open-end inquiry sessions in the classroom, along with interviews with elderly citizens of the area -- perhaps the retired postman who delivered along these streets and retired carpenters or brick masons who can describe how the structures were built.

Students then go on a second walking tour. This time they focus on change over time rather than architectural vocabulary; however, the terms are certainly reinforced. Frequently on such a walk the students carry with them old photographs of a house or other building on the route. They compare these with the appearance of the structure

today. Freed (1976, pp. 24-27) and Taylor found that elementary students soon lost their dependence on the photographs. They quickly learned to spot remodeled houses and could point out such structural changes as the addition or removal of part of the building. They were even able to note when stucco had been applied over old wood or shingle surfaces.

The third of Taylor's methods, "delving into the archives," begins after the second walking tour. Students return to the classroom and divide into groups of five or six. The teacher then gives them problems that he or she has researched and prepared. The teacher provides slides, maps, and a great variety of written documents such as newspaper clippings, copies of deeds, probate records, and planning department surveys. Students peruse these materials until they develop answers to the questions the problems pose: How and why did lot prices change so markedly in this area compared to the rest of the town? Why were the first lots in this subdivision only 25 feet wide? Why are four houses in the same block so similar when each was designed by a different architect? More importantly, students develop questions of their own and must do original research to find the answers. This kind of exercise nicely combines historical method and inquiry techniques (Taylor et al., 1977).

Seeing History in Architecture

The idea of using architecture as historical evidence has a prestigious background. Many years ago Lewis Mumford (1924) pointed out that no building exists in a void, but that "it functions as a part of a greater whole and can be seen and felt only through dynamic participation with that whole." In describing his own work 30 years later, he remarked, "I had explored with notebook and camera the cities and villages of the Eastern seaboard, and had learned to use buildings as documents."

Architecture can be used well as documents only if students are allowed to explore with notebook and camera as Mumford suggests. Simply showing photographs in the classroom is a poor technique for two reasons: First, one must see the surroundings of the particular

building to place it within its neighborhood. How does it fit in with adjacent structures? Why was it built on this particular site and not another? Second, photographs can present only a two-dimensional perspective. We are used to the flat image in books, in movies, on television screens, and in magazines. We look at paintings and appreciate the techniques of the artists, but most of us have trouble with three-dimensional art forms. We have simply not been trained to walk around and view an object from several viewpoints. Like sculpture, architecture demands this approach. Russell Lynes (1960) believes that if we realize that a building displaces air in the same way that a ship displaces water, and realize that the spaces a building contains are unique, then we are beginning to get the feel of what architecture should mean.

Students with sketchpads and cameras will reproduce a flat image; but by doing it for themselves, they will develop the more-important concepts of form and space. The difference is significant. More important, the student now has an artifact or "document" on which to base his research. The particular focus of the research could take many forms. One might examine changes through time in the appearance of one particular house and/or the neighborhood in which it is located, or study the history of the various families who have lived in a particular house. This exercise can be particularly interesting if the neighborhood has experienced marked upward or downward social mobility.

Staten Island fifth graders studying the neighborhood of Tompkinsville made the discovery that neighborhoods go through cycles of architectural fashion. They found that the famous Pritchard house, for example, built in 1845, still exists, although it now contains elements of Greek revival, Italian palazzo, and carpenter's Gothic. Victorian homes had decayed, but some are now being refurbished; a row of attached duplex homes had become slum dwellings, but now, after renovation, are highly competitive in the housing market. This study led one student to remark, "I used to think all houses were the same. Now I know the skill that was put into building

them. The homes to me are like books filled with exciting history" (O'Dowd 1972, p. 140).

One house that is indeed filled with an exciting history is the "parsonage" at Old Sturbridge Village. This house has been refurbished to represent the home of a rural pastor with a young family in the early nineteenth century. The museum staff has prepared supportive materials that are used by teachers before students visit the site. These include probate records, visual materials, and descriptions of pastoral domestic life. In this case the "family" is a composite one, but the concept of the project could be easily developed in many communities where ample documentation exists for the actual family that lived in a historic house. Cohen's article (1975, p. 469) describing the Sturbridge project suggests that students might look into ways in which the family worked as an economic, social, and psychological unit; adult-child and male-female work roles; and the family's complementary and competing relationships with the rest of the community.

Students using Mary Lohmann's carefully developed approach (1975) can learn the implications of how the utilization of space has changed over the centuries. Following a brief explanation of the construction of the Colonial-style house, students examine a typical floor plan. They trace that plan from the booklet *A New Look at History* and then compare the plan to one of the same scale that they have drawn of their own house. After close examination of both plans students write a paper in which they discuss the differences in daily life, comfort, and privacy that their own family would have experienced in the two time periods. This exercise might also include having students determine how the houses themselves reflect the uses, flexible or specialized, of particular parts of the house; they might determine which areas are used for public space and what is obviously private space. Children are often surprised to realize that bedrooms, now often used for play, study, or entertainment of peers, were once simply small sleeping chambers.

Other aspects of architectural history that Lohmann teaches through similar activities are roof styles and architectural decoration. Students learn five different roof types -- gable, lean-to or salt box, hip, gambrel, and mansard -- and the period names of Colonial, Federal, and Victorian architectural ornamentation. Then they study period furniture and decorative and utilitarian objects typically found in each style of house. The whole unit makes an excellent introduction to the relationship between architecture and local social history.

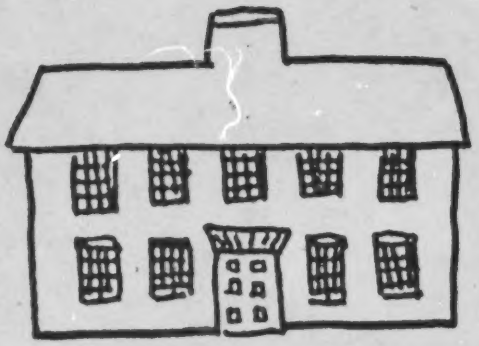
Architecture as Art History

Few will care to teach extensive history of American architecture as part of a local history study, but the wise teacher will be prepared for the inevitable student who, after a brief introduction to the topic, will just not let it go. The Metropolitan Museum of Art has prepared a superb overview in its Discovering American History Through Art series, published by Rand McNally and Company (n.d.). This filmstrip-record, "Towers and Palaces: The Search for an American Tradition in Architecture," chronicles the American building scene from the first European-inspired buildings through Frank Lloyd Wright and other modern architects. For those who want to read about the topic, and for teachers who feel the need for a solid historical background, there are many excellent works available in most public libraries.

Alan Gowans' *Images of American Living: Four Centuries of Architecture and Furniture as Cultural Expression* suggests the broad patterns of development in American architecture and furniture that he believes are the key to understanding. "Knowing the patterns," he says, "we know history" and "to know history is to know ourselves" (Gowans 1964, p. xv). This history of American styles is divided into four parts: "Medieval America," "Classical America," "Victorian America," and "20th-Century Man and 20th-Century Art in the United States." Each covers styles and the cultural and technological influences behind them.

Figure 4

A Sampling of American House Styles

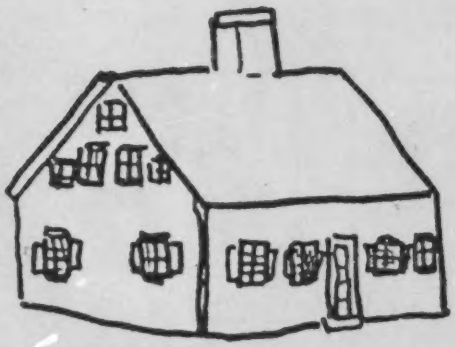


Colonial, 1690-1760

Large central chimney
Narrow clapboards
Framed doors and windows
Usually more than 12 panes in each window

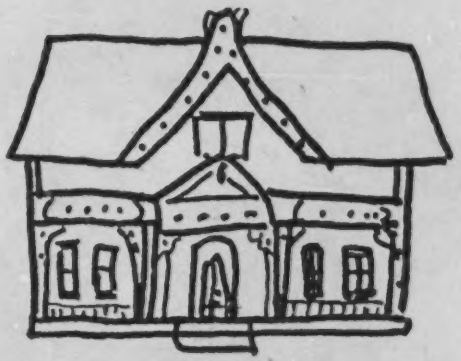
Mansard, 1855-1885

High, distinctive roof line
Slope of roof bent out for more space on top floor
Dormer windows of various shapes
Slate usually used on slope of roof
Sometimes called Second Empire style



Cape Cod, 1710-1830

Frame construction
One and one-half stories
Central chimney
No dormes
Windows in gable ends
Shingle or clapboard construction
Half house: two windows on one side of front door
Three-quarters house: two windows on one side of door and one on other
Full cape: two windows on each side of door



Carpenter's Gothic, 1870-1910

Sawn-wood ornaments at peaks of gables
Verge boards under gables and on porches
Decorated porch railings and aprons
Sawn brackets on porch posts and cornice
No standard design
Ornamental trim, often called "gingerbread"

James Marston Fitch (1966) does much the same thing in *American Building I: The Historical Forces That Shaped It*, but he emphasizes technological forces rather more than Gowans.

Both books are delightful reading but more detailed than Marcus Whiffen's (1969) *American Architecture Since 1780: A Guide to the Styles*, which is the authoritative work recommended by the federal government for use in making nominations for National Historic Building designations. Whiffen arranges his book in brief sections, which include an overview of a particular style, examples that show details of the style, a brief history of the use of the style in the United States, and bibliographic references to the style. He says that his book is meant to serve much the same purpose as a birdwatcher's guide, and although building watchers have a much more difficult task -- buildings are more often "hybridized" than birds! -- he thinks that the best way for the nonprofessional to gain an understanding of architecture is to learn to see the identifying characteristics by looking at buildings. His book is well suited for such a task. It is small, lightweight, and nicely organized; the table of contents, the index, and the glossary add to the usefulness of the volume.

Student projects that can be developed out of this more intensive study include the production of slide-tape shows that cover the architectural history of a town or neighborhood, photographic displays for school or the public library, or even the publication of a walking tour guide to be used by historic preservation societies.

Architecture and the City

Two very well planned programs that use the study of architecture as part of larger examination of the city have been developed for use on the college level. David Goldfield (1975, pp. 535-556) of Virginia Polytechnic sees the total city as artifact and teaching tool. He uses structures, open spaces, and streets instead of manuscripts and census records to create an awareness and appreciation among students for the need for preservation of our architectural heritage. This is not to say that he neglects the written documents, but that he believes

a new dimension to urban history or American history survey can be developed by field work or photographic reproduction.

Students study the three components of the city -- buildings, open spaces, and streets -- and develop in-depth analyses. The task of analyzing a primary source and collecting the supporting data teaches the basic elements of historical methodology. Goldfield's article describes ways in which the class may be grouped for this study, and provides a very detailed description of how his approach works. The example he chose for illustration of the study model for analyzing buildings is the row house, a common type of American dwelling. Function, form, context, implications, and the interrelationships of these elements provide the organizing categories for the study.

Gerald Danzer, University of Illinois at Chicago, thinks that a central concern of the social studies should be to help students learn to see intelligently the landscape and the cityscape. Our perception of ourselves in time and space depends on our understanding of our physical surroundings. He suggests that one intelligently led walk around the block could demolish "the pigeon holes of the subject-centered curriculum" (Danzer 1974, p. 208). Anticipating that a student's first question would be "What should we look for?," Danzer provides a list of questions organized in ten categories: identifying a building, the building's historical dimensions, classifying the building, the site, technical aspects, function, economic aspects, legal aspects, aesthetic aspects, and, finally, the building and people. Even though not all of the questions may apply to a particular building, they do provide students with a strategy for historical inquiry.

In addition to these specific programs that link architecture to history, there are a number of publications meant to encourage larger studies that also have interacting sections on architectural aspects of communities. Two pamphlets, *A Teacher Introduction to Environmental Education* (n.d.) and *Environmental Education Teaching Tools* (n.d.), published by the American Institute of Architects contain activities

and resources for teaching about the "built environment." Both are free, and orders should be directed to the Office of Administrator, Community Services Department, American Institute of Architects, 1735 New York Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C., 20006 or to a local AIA Publications Distributor.

The League of Women Voters has developed a pamphlet, *Know Your Community* (1972), which contains 43 pages of questions one might ask about his/her municipality. *Learning About the Built Environment*, researched and written by Aase Ericksen (n.d.), is a publication of the National Association of Elementary School Principals. It is a catalog of rich resources for both students and teachers. Richard Saul Wurman (1972) has written *Yellow Pages of Learning Resources*, a guidebook to examining the city. It is divided into 70 categories. Teachers interested in bibliographies of games, simulations, films, and filmstrips will find Wurman's listings helpful.

Finally, teachers will find many exciting and useful studies in the field of cultural geography (see references to these in Chapter 6). A work provocative in terms of architectural study is Allen Noble's article on the classification of housing styles as an indicator of the origin of settlers (1975, pp. 285-302). He suggests that study of particular styles of houses can be used to reconstruct the movement of groups of people. "It is possible not only to make such reconstruction," he says, "but also to use house types as a clue to the settlement history of any region. It is surprising that such an obvious and significant visual link with the culture of the past has been so neglected." The case study he describes provides data on the techniques one might use, as well as a selected bibliography.

Historical and Industrial Archaeology

Frequently called "above-ground archaeology," both historical and industrial archaeology depend on existing structures and ruins for much of their field information. However, they also sometimes use the technique of the dig. For example, such reconstructions as Bent's Fort in Colorado would not have been authentic if only above-ground

remains and historical documentation had been used. But defining these relatively new fields is difficult; as yet, there is more practice than theory in both fields. Historical archaeology is defined as the systematic recovery by scientific methods of material remains and written evidence of man's life in the past, and the careful analysis of such evidence. Industrial archaeology is "a field of study concerned with investigating, surveying and recording, and, in some cases with preserving industrial monuments. It aims, moreover, at assessing the significance of these monuments in the context of social and technological history." An industrial monument is "any relic of an obsolete phase of an industry or transport system" (Buchanan 1972, p. 20).

The techniques of both fields are useful in the study of local architecture. After the initial historical research is completed and organized, students armed with tape measures, sketch pads, note pads, and cameras should do an actual field survey of the structure or structures in question. They should measure all dimensions of the building, inside and out, and record these on the sketch they are making. They should photograph the building from all possible angles. They might take rubbings of decorative features, and they count everything possible -- panes of windows, ceiling beams, and so on. The purpose of all this quantification is to obtain the largest amount of data possible, so that a complete record will exist if the structure is destroyed.

After collecting this evidence, the next step is to collate it and develop a proper repository for it. Students might simply place their information on a "report" card (see Figure 5) or they may write a small booklet or produce a slide show, filmstrip, or film. The importance of this type of work is lost if it is not accessible to other scholars. Knowledge of the floor plan of one church or brewery, or of the measurements of one spinning jenny or mule-drawn coal car, is not nearly so useful for interpretative purposes as are data on 20 or 30 items from the same period.

Figure 5

Sample Site Inventory Form

NATURE OF SITE	STATE	COUNTY	NO.
MAP REF. SECTION	TOWNSHIP	RANGE	MERIDIAN
LAND OWNERSHIP			
DESCRIPTION (continue on back)			
MACHINERY OR FITTINGS (if applicable)			
PRINTED, MANUSCRIPT, AND PHOTOGRAPHIC RECORDS (where stored)			
INFORMANTS AND REFERENCES			
RECORDED BY:		DATE:	

The best examples of the use of historical or industrial archaeology in schools come from Britain, where "environmental" studies has always been defined to include man-built structures, and where local history has been a part of such study. R. A. S. Hennessey (1975, pp. 29-41), one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, has developed a well-thought-out rationale and plan for such teaching. Among the aims or goals that he lists are that the study should be used "to train students in sound historical methodology and (if possible) in fieldwork. . . . [and] to help develop interest in, and competence within, the urban environment."

Among the projects he describes is one performed at the Forth Primary School (up to age 12), Lanarkshire, Scotland. Students reconstructed an ironworks and the related settlement of Wilsontown by means of a large table model. The evidence collected included inventories, ordnance survey maps, the Old Statistical Account of Scotland, and, of course, the results of the students' own field work. The buildings that the students surveyed were later found unsafe and were ordered demolished. What now remains of Wilsontown is the Forth School project.

Training in these two rather new fields is not yet offered in many colleges in the United States, but the Department of American Civilization at the University of Pennsylvania offers both (Abrash and Orr, 1975). Students there and at institutes held at Rensselaer Polytechnic are helping to define the field. Definitions and theory need to be developed, but in the meantime, these two disciplines are adding much to the knowledge necessary for historical reconstruction.

Public Art

Much less has been done with the role of the other arts in the study of local history, although the possibilities certainly exist. One approach is to examine the war memorials found in nearly any town. In a park in New Hampshire, for example, monuments commemorating three wars are built of three different materials -- granite for the Civil War, iron for World War I, and wood for World War II. Only those who died are listed on the Civil War monument; all who served are listed on the World War I monument. The number of names is greater for the Civil War. Facts like these suggest such questions as: How wealthy was the town at different periods? What proportion of the town's people participated in each of the wars? Students who find answers to such questions and then test the answers for accuracy will be learning a good deal about historical methodology as well as about the history of their town (Brown and Tyrrell 1966, p. 3).

Sculpture, and a community's reaction to it, can develop into a larger study of values, past and present. One thinks immediately of

Chicago and the controversy over the pieces by Picasso and Calder; but other cities, too, have had problems convincing the public that some works *are* art. "Workmen in Oakland, California, dismantled a controversial statue, 'Mother Peace' . . . after the work created a furor. Public pressure to remove the art work was so great that City Council members voted $2,400 to take it down from in front of the county courthouse. . . ." (Danzer 1975). Thus the history of public sculpture can also reflect value conflicts within a community.

Students who feel strongly about one side or the other in such a conflict can use the controversy as the genesis of a local history project. Simple questionnaires that can be administered to friends, neighbors, and people on the street may be tabulated according to sex, age, ethnic identification, and perceived social and economic class. Newspaper stories and editorials can provide additional information. A recent incident can then be compared with one that took place in the community's past -- and one can be almost certain that there was such an incident. Perhaps it concerned a memorial or decoration for a public building rather than a piece of sculpture. One period that is often fruitful for such incidents is the depression. Public structures were welcomed for the economic benefit they brought to a town, but nearly everyone had comments to make on the quality of the work.

Sculpture added to Boulder High School in Boulder, Colorado, is an interesting example. "Minnie" and "Jake" are rotund figures meant to represent Strength and Wisdom. They were commissioned as part of the Federal Artists Program, and the school board as well as the city council were delighted with the idea that "real" sculpture would decorate the fine educational complex happily built with federal funds. The unveiling was a disaster, however, and for a time it appeared that public indignation would force the removal of these statues in the same way that "Mother Peace" was destroyed in Oakland. Cool heads finally prevailed, but the storm of protest is renewed every football season when crosstown rivals paint the statues red (their school color) and just as regularly funds must be

found to sandblast Minnie and Jake to remove the stain of the Fairview Knights. The school newspaper annually produces a story on Minnie and Jake, and the local newspaper often reviews the old controversy. Students studying these responses over 40 years can discover changes in popular taste. Other documents that could be used in the project include school board minutes, federal records, and the ubiquitous oral interview.

Rhode Island has prepared an extensive set of activities for studying state history, many of which are applicable for local study as well. After students investigate monuments, statues, and sculptural forms, they are asked to relate examples of sculpture to people and events in the community's history. They are to do this by finding the answer to such questions as: Who made it? What or whom, if anything or anybody, does it represent? Why was it made and who were the people responsible? (Rhode Island 1976, p. 140).

Obviously, public art can be examined on as many levels as architecture. Much depends on the interest and maturity level of the students, the interest and knowledge of the teacher, and, of course, the availability of the resources in a particular community.

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VI

FOLKLORE AND CULTURAL JOURNALISM

Folklore as usually defined includes such items as stories, songs, dances, games, arts and crafts, customs, and beliefs that have endured among a people for a long time. They are part of tradition handed down by word of mouth or by example. The initial version or design may change as the transmitters incorporate their own embellishments, but the folk quality of the item remains.

Cultural journalism has become the term used to describe the sort of magazines put together by school students using stories from their own communities. Based on the famous *Foxfire* model originated by Eliot Wiggington (1975), this approach to learning was disseminated and popularized by IDEAS (Institutional Development and Economic Affairs Service) of Washington, D.C. Projects initiated by IDEAS now number over a hundred, and several hundred others are funded by local school districts. These magazines are most often based on personal memories of local incidents or common regional patterns of behavior, and so are becoming rich sources of folklore information.

Because such studies deal with the beliefs or behavior peculiar to particular groups, they have much to offer in the development of local history studies. So much of what has passed for folklore in the United States has been specious that the study is only now gaining the academic respectability it has always held in Europe. Most historians, Richard M. Dorson points out, are concerned only with facts; that groups of people do share particular beliefs is in itself a fact that must be considered. It is in the analysis and recording of such beliefs that local history and folklore study can happily come together. In his provocative collection of essays, *American Folklore and the Historian,* Dorson makes this important point:

> The union between the historical and the legendary narrative is firmest at the level of local history. . . . The local historian is concentrating on a well-defined and bounded community, with its own strong sense of identity and

> community, of roots and past -- a much stronger sense than the nation as a whole possesses of its history. Within the township and county borders the family names and local landmarks perpetuate a history that is visible and immediate and borne in mind rather than buried in history books. Local history is in a very large sense traditional history (Dorson 1971, p. 148).

Students must, however, keep in mind that local tradition may confuse legend with fact. An example of such a pitfall is the place-name tradition of the Yoho Cove near Kennebec, Maine. Local lore has it that the name came about when a wild man, who spoke only the word "yoho," had kidnapped a woman and held her until she was rescued two years later. To express his anger that she would leave him, he ripped their baby in two and flung half the body at the departing rescue boat. Some local persons believed that this happened. Folklorists and historians must doubt the story however, since the same incident is recorded as happening in Canada, Persia, and Kentucky (Dorson 1959, Taylor and Roberts 1957). But historical facts may lie buried in some tales, and they are worth the collection and recording for this potential.

Collecting Folklore

One school project that takes into consideration the problems inherent in collecting folklore was developed by an eighth-grade teacher in Stephenville Integrated High School in Newfoundland. Students conduct interviews to collect folklore, but, he adds,

> We examine the folk and the lore in relation to each other, with emphasis on the functional aspect of the lore. It is not only necessary to know the beliefs and the customs, but primarily to know what part they played in the lives of the people who used or practiced them. It is not just enough to know the saying, 'smoke going up in a straight line meant good weather,' but to know who used it, how serious the saying was or what did it mean to the group of people who took the

saying seriously -- especially the fisher folk and the farmer (Fudge 1974, p. 39).

It is also important that students be trained to recognize the difference between authentic folk materials and items that are merely different or quaint. Not every old codger who loves to tell stories is a representative of a folk culture; he may simply be passing on tales that are really a part of the mass culture. The test of folk materials is whether they are found at different times and in different places among those who at one time shared the same subculture. Stories and songs, beliefs and customs may be describing the same problem or delight of the universal human existence, but they will do so in their own inimitable folk fashion.

One system for the collection of folk materials that is readily adaptable for student use was developed by MacEdward Leach and Henry Glassie (1973, pp. 3-48) for the Pennsylvania State Historical and Museum Commission. They provide examples of authentic folk items (one might question some of their examples), suggest initiatory tactics, and display a model survey form. Collectors are informed as to how they should introduce themselves, explain how they learned of the informant, describe the purposes of the survey, and tell how the materials will be preserved. The authors caution collectors not to ask for folk songs or beliefs specifically, but simply to ask instead about "the old-time ways of your people." They advocate asking such suggestive questions as: What did they do for entertainment? Were weddings different from those of today? They also explain that informants may be self-conscious at the beginning of a session; if a collector gives samples of what he is after, he is more likely to set the informant at ease.

Items that should be included on the survey form include subject of the collection; informant's name, address, and biographical information; collector's name and address; date, method, and place where recording was done; and finally, any descriptive information that would help to place the item in context. Recording may be done with audio or video tape, or may be notes written at the

time or as soon after the event as possible. Photographs always enhance a collection, especially if the item collected is material. Photographs of the steps in the process of construction are especially valuable.

What should students collect? The list seems endless. A few samples follow:

Folk stories are perhaps the items best known by young school children. They are likely to have heard many such stories before they entered school, and many of the readers designed for the early grades include folk tales and legends. Tall tales, stories of good and bad luck, ghost stories, stories of animals with uncanny abilities -- all are included in the category of the folk story.

The legend is perhaps the most productive source of information for local history. Typically, the legend is transmitted by word of mouth, although versions may also appear in print; the legend is hard to believe, but nevertheless is believed; and it must be well-known to a group of people (Dorson 1971, p. 158). Legends may glorify a particular local person of great strength or peculiar ability, e.g., John Henry vs. the machine; an anti-hero such as Owsley, the first mass producer and purveyor of LSD (Dorson 1971, p. 162); or a family who for 75 years had used its gift for locating drowned bodies -- an art said to be based on an old Sioux secret (Wyman 1962, p. 103). Outlaw stories, disaster stories, and unusual tales of animal exploits, tricksters, and recurring phenomena (spectral ships sighted in the seventeenth century, the vanishing hitchhiker in the twentieth century) are some of the kinds of legends students might collect.

Riddles are also popular with schoolchildren. They are particularly easy to collect, since the old adage "Tell a riddle and hear one" seems universally to be true. Upper elementary students delight in riddles. However, one riddle cited by the Pennsylvania collection group would be understood only by those who knew that pigs were traditionally slaughtered during the full moon of November: "Query: What animal is frightened by the new moon in November?

Answer: a pig (Leach and Glassie 1973, p. 15).

Proverbs are often excellent sources of folk speech as well as expressions of values. Traditional words for utilitarian objects and tools are often retained in a proverb even though they have dropped out of the everyday speech of a group. Proverbs fall under several categories. One, the apothegm, is a frequently repeated truism ("Easier said than done"). Another common type is the Wellerism, in which the proverbial statement is repeated as a quotation which puts it into context: "'Everybody to his own taste,' said the farmer as he kissed the cow.'" Some proverbs are traditional statements of belief, and may be used even when the belief now exists as a bit of humor: "Cold hands, warm heart" (Leach and Glassie 1973, p. 48). Finally, one might include statements used during special situations as proverbs. A Yiddish proverb from the Russian-Jewish tradition is a traditional response when someone has had a bit of good luck: *"Poo, poo. A leir a begis aig zult dier nicht shocten"* (No one should throw an evil eye on you) (Leach and Glassie 1973, pp. 47-48).

Folk songs are easy to obtain, especially for the student who is familiar with many of the "standard" songs and who can sing or play a particular variant; for just as one riddle inevitably brings on another, one folk song can bring to mind two dozen more. Folkways records has an outstanding collection of songs that are regional, ethnic, situational, and occupation linked. Cowboys, for instance, are admirably described through their own music: "Cowhands despised the blowhard, the softy, the schemer, the tightwad. They admired the trickster who outtricked them . . . they prided themselves on their open-handed hospitality" (Emerson 1971, p. 68). Their values and code of behavior are all incorporated in songs such as "Cowboy's Lament," "Old-Time Cowboy," and "The Texas Cowboy."

Games often have elements of folklore, and many variants of a single game can often be found on an urban school playground. Rules, as stated and as actually enforced, may differ sharply, as do the chants that frequently go with such games as hopscotch and jump rope. Students might collect as many variants as possible from their peers,

and then interview older people from the neighborhood to see whether they can find any relationship between particular versions and ethnic groups, previous regional affiliations, and the like.

Beliefs and customs make an interesting collection. Leach and Glassie caution that what one person regards as a belief, another may call a superstition. Birth, love, luck, and death are categories rich in beliefs: Will an axe under the bed make a delivery easier? How are unborn babies "marked?" How does a girl make someone fall in love with her? How does a farmer guarantee a good crop? Will seeing a broken mirror bring unhappy years? How are birthdays celebrated? Weddings? What special behaviors are expected at funerals? How are holidays celebrated?

One Boulder High School group interviewing members of a senior citizens' club were able to list 24 methods for getting rid of warts and a dozen ways of planting potatoes for the most productive crop. Most of those interviewed laughed about the customs they were describing, but when asked if they practiced them, most admitted that they certainly did, and that they worked!

Walker Wyman's students in Wisconsin gathered a number of interviews and reports on folk healers and water witches (1962, pp. 101-103). And oil-finding witches are described in Mody C. Boatright's (1963) *Folklore of the Oil Industry*. Both indicate that many folk customs span ethnic and regional boundaries. Comparisons of the techniques used and the degree of local reliance on the "witches" make interesting studies.

A succinct work that will be especially helpful for those new to the field of folklore is a guide edited by Charles D. Blaney (1970). *Folklore: Collecting Folklore, American Folk Tradition, and Books for Reading* has a select bibliography under the headings of folklore, the folk tale, folk songs, proverbs and riddles, and a list of periodicals that one should know about.

Folklore and Material Culture

Research programs and folk-culture archives have existed for some time. Leaders in this field are the several American museums that combine research with interpretation. Colonial Williamsburg, Old Sturbridge Village, Plimoth Plantation, Mystic Seaport, and the Farmers' Museum are all examples. Old Sturbridge Village recreates New England life from 1790 to 1840. Its researchers examine subjects from agriculture to religion, from cooking to clothing styles (Yoder 1976, p. 11). Students who visit this museum are not simply interested viewers. They are prepared ahead of time and are introduced to a particular study topic when they arrive. An example of the procedure of Sturbridge is the use of the historic house to recreate the daily life of a young minister and his family, which was described in the chapter on architecture (Cohen 1975).

Folk architecture is an important aspect of folklore studies. Common people did not need Louis Sullivan to tell them that "form follows function." Some igloos were designed with an airlock and "entry hall" for storage, and the interior walls of the home were draped with skins that acted as insulation. The effectiveness of the igloo as a thermal control device was surpassed only by the mud-walled, flat mud-roofed house of the American Indian in the Southwest. Even when the outdoor temperature is approaching 105 degrees, the interior of such a house may be a comfortable 80 degrees (Fitch and Branch 1960).

The construction methods used to build a building explain much about the structure of the society where the buildings are found.

> The heavy timbers of the New England house and their joinery could only have been assembled by communal effort and thus express the close-knit mutually dependent nature of the New England village. The balloon form was made of light milled lumber joined by machine-produced nails. It could be erected by one man. These houses often stood alone on the plains and prairies (Wilson 1974, p. 682).

Geographer Fred B. Kniffen (1936, 1965, 1976) has written a series of articles on folk housing. Each describes the techniques and the generalizations one might make about the settlement patterns of particular groups, as well as the extent and the meaning of the diffusion of the particular subculture. Although Kniffen asserts that the type of quantitative studies that use occupance patterns as a base must include many other research precedures before conclusions can be drawn, the basic concept is one that could easily be adapted to the classroom.

Students could examine several areal maps showing, for example, the distribution of "shotgun" houses in Louisiana (Kniffen 1935, p. 191) or the distribution of the Finnish sauna in the Great Lake states (Mather and Kaups 1963). They could examine data such as photographs and floor plans, and written materials such as letters and diaries that contain descriptions of the buildings, and finally compare this information with census data from the region. What, for example, was the function of the sauna? Was it used equally by the sexes, different age sets? Does the size and design vary by economic class? Are any saunas found outside the Finnish enclave? A field trip to several sauna sites for detailed examination of the structure could enhance such a lesson and might allow students to make some tentative statements concerning the importance of the sauna in earlier and contemporary use.

Don Yoder's edited volume *American Folklife* (1976) contains selections about folk boats in Louisiana (Knipmeyer 1956), Afro-American coil basketry in South Carolina (Davis 1976), tollgates in New York (Winslow 1976), and "Wishing in and Shooting in" the New Year in the Carolinas (Robbins 1976). Such studies provide provocative material for student lessons. Not only do they contain well-developed substantive materials that could be edited for classroom use, but they also contain important tips on methodology, and perhaps most important, put such studies into context. The comparative approach is inherent in all the works.

Cultural Journalism

Few innovations have made as much impact on school systems as Eliot Wiggington's impressive model for cultural journalism (1975). *Foxfire*, the magazine he developed with his students, and Wiggington's own work describing his experiences are too well known to need description. Countless schools now use the production of a magazine on the *Foxfire* model as a regular course, and even more of them have lessons or short units in the *Foxfire* mode (Thompson 1975).

The great variety of subject matter covered in these journals is suggested by the following samples from some 1975 issues:

Fulcrum (Norwich, Vermont): Interviews with a lumberjack, farmer, and owner of the general store, and a photo essay on the making of maple syrup.

Shenango (Farrell, Pennsylvania): Customs of the Amish, Italian cheese making, and the preparation of polenta.

Sweet Bass (Lenoir, North Carolina): Quilting, sawmilling, courting customs, soap making, and the making of gun stocks.

Clingstone (Greer, South Carolina): Ghost tales, area bridges, horseshoeing, remedies and recipes.

Bittersweet (Lebanon, Missouri): Brush arbor meetings (religious services held outdoors under brush arbor shelters), customs about illness and death, a cemetery and a singer at funerals for 65 years.

Foxfire (Rabun Gap, Georgia): Fiddle making, homemade cheese and butter, wood carving, building a still, making tar, witches, cucumber dolls (*Exchange* 1976, pp. 10-11).

About all that these items have in common is that the information used in them came from the community in which the students lived. One issue of *Bittersweet* was concerned exclusively with death, but the rest represent a hodge-podge of folklore, local economic history, and practical "how-to-do-its." One could scarcely justify such work if the declared purpose were to teach students the skills needed to write local history. No such claim is made. Pride in the local community is a goal, and increased understanding of people and activities past and

present within the community is a result. The real objective, however, is simply to teach practical skills by having students use stories from their community to put together a magazine.

A guide developed for teacher and student use by IDEAS (Wood 1975) describes how one interviews, records, transcribes, photographs, develops and prints photographs, writes a story, lays out a story, circulates and advertises a magazine, and copyrights it. *You and Aunt Arie, A Guide to Cultural Journalism* is complemented by two other IDEAS publications: Eliot Wiggington's *Moments: The Foxfire Experience* (1975), a description of the original experience designed for use by teachers and administrators; and Edward Ives' *Field Workers* Guide (1975), an explanation of how to interview and file the recorded tapes.

A film of the *Foxfire* experiment is available for sale or rent from McGraw-Hill Films. It is very brief (21 minutes) and is not particularly descriptive, but it does serve to give students a basic overview of what is involved in producing a magazine and in some cases could serve as motivation for a class.

Teachers who are interested in the concept of cultural journalism will want to write to IDEAS for a sample copy of *Exchange* or subscribe to it for the nominal yearly rate of $3.00. The full address is Institutional Development and Economic Affairs Service, Inc., 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

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VII

LOCAL HISTORY RESOURCES

This chapter describes resources that teachers and students will find useful for performing local history projects. It is not an exhaustive bibliography of published literature. Neither is it a comprehensive finding guide for unpublished materials. It is a selection list of guides and manuals; hints for utilizing photographs, cemeteries, and oral history; and descriptions of commonly used unpublished resources. These are kinds of materials that a teacher who wishes to begin or to expand a local history program will probably find useful.

Guide Books to Local History

Teachers' Guides and Manuals. A number of manuals for teachers and curriculum guides suggest possible uses of local history in the schools. These manuals usually include lists of commonly available source materials.

Philip D. Jordon's *The Nature and Practice of State and Local History*, Publication No. 14 of the Service Center for Teachers of History (Washington, DC: American Historical Association, 1958), is a sensitively written introduction to the subject addressed to teachers.

Ralph Adams Brown and William G. Tyrrell's *How to Use Local History* (Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1961) is an eight-page pamphlet in the National Council's How To Do It Series. Although it is too brief to be very useful, it does include some helpful hints about incorporating local history in an American history course.

The manual that is probably the most widely used (at least, most frequently cited in the literature) is Clifford L. Lord's *Teaching History With Community Resources* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964). It contains especially useful sections on developing school library and museum resources for local history programs and on strategies for involving in the program other academic departments

and the community at large. It is also the introductory volume of the Localized History Series, which is edited by Lord. This series of student guides is devoted to the history of states, major cities, watersheds, and ethnic groups. Each volume contains a historical overview, a bibliography, and suggestions for field trips. The quality of the volumes varies considerably, but the field trip suggestions are very useful.

A recent publication with helpful hints on integrating local history research into the social studies curriculum is Thomas L. Dynneson's *Planning Local History Projects for Elementary and Secondary Students* (N.p.: West Texas Council for the Social Studies, 1976).

A number of curriculum guides produced by local school districts and state departments of education provide directions for incorporating local historical research into social studies courses. By far the best is the guide entitled *Teaching the Age of Homespun: A Guide for 7th Grade Social Studies* (Albany, NY: State Education Department, 1965), which describes teaching activities and materials developed by Hazel Hertzberg.

Many guides have been written for the study of certain communities. An example is Elizabeth G. Heath and Harry L. Taplin's *Guide to the Study of Lexington* (Lexington, MA: Memorial Library, 1976).

Research and Writing Manuals. Another category of "how-to-do-it" manuals concentrates on the techniques of research and writing. Although not concerned with classroom strategies, these guides written for the layman will be useful to teachers and students.

Thomas E. Felt's *Researching, Writing, and Publishing Local History* (Nashville, TN: American Association for State and Local History, 1976) is one of the most recently published manuals. In addition to explaining how and where to do research, and how to construct footnotes and bibliographies, Felt's book has a section on "do-it-yourself" publishing which could be valuable to a local history class.

Donald Dean Parker's *Local History: How to Gather It, Write It, and Publish It* (New York, NY: Social Science Research Council, 1944) is dated, but still valuable.

Marcia Muth Miller's *Collecting and Using Local History* (Santa Fe, NM: New Mexico Research Library of the Southwest, 1971) is another brief (31 pages) but useful guide.

A valuable introduction to the use of quantification in the writing of local history is Sam B. Warner, Jr.'s *Writing Local History: The Use of Social Statistics,* Technical Leaflet No. 7 (Nashville, TN: American Association for State and Local History, 1970).

A British publication, Derek Turner's *Historical Demography in Schools* (London: The Historical Association, 1971), contains instructions for using census data and can be adapted to American census returns.

Jacques Barzun and Henry F. Graff's *The Modern Researcher*, rev. ed. (New York, NY: Harcourt Brace & World, 1970), has an excellent section on writing. However, the most useful writing manual is still William Strunk, Jr., and E.B. White's *The Elements of Style* (New York, NY: Macmillan, 1959).

Oral History Manuals. Although oral interviews are only one of many techniques of historical research, this method has generated more literature than all the rest combined.

The manual that students and teachers will probably find the most useful is Willa K. Baum's *Oral History for the Local Historical Society* (Nashville, TN: American Association for State and Local History, 1971). This illustrated booklet of 63 pages describes equipment and leads one step by step through the process of interviewing, selecting subjects, transcribing the interviews, and indexing and preserving oral history tapes. Baum describes the middle part of this process more fully in *Transcribing and Editing Oral History* (Nashville, TN: American Association of State and Local History, 1977).

William G. Tyrrell's *Tape Recording Local History,* Technical Leaflet No. 35 (Nashville, TN: American Association for State and Local History, 1966), is a 12-page leaflet available from AASLH,

1400 Eighth Avenue South, Nashville, TN 37203, for $.50 a copy.

Among several other "how-to-do-it" manuals for oral history, the following are worth consulting: John A. Neuenschwander's *Oral History as a Teaching Approach* (Washington, DC: National Education Association, 1976) is a 46-page handbook on the use of oral history in teaching. Gary Shumway and William G. Hartley's *An Oral History Primer* (Fullerton, CA: Oral History Program, California State University, 1973) is directed especially toward researching family history through interviews. Cullom Davis' *From Tape to Type -- An Oral History Manual and Workbook* (Springfield, IL: Oral History Office, Sangamon State University, n.d.) is an excellent manual.

Photographs as Local History Sources

Photographs are important sources for local history as well as effective learning aids. A photograph of a street scene, a Victorian parlor, or a workshop gives students a visual sense of the past that cannot be gained by reading or by listening to reminiscences about the past. Indeed, local histories can be assembled primarily on the basis of photographic evidence. Michael Levy's *Wisconsin Death Trip* (New York: Pantheon Books, 1973) is a fascinating and haunting example of local historical reconstruction by a montage of photographs and newspaper items. However, it is important to remember that most photographs are not worth a thousand words, cannot speak for themselves, and may produce only a very superficial understanding of the past.

The value of photographs as historical sources depends very much upon the amount of knowledge and ability the viewer brings to it. Like any other historical document, an old photograph bears a certain quantity of information. To have value as a historical source, the photograph must be deciphered. Someone who is an authority on architecture or costume or urban transportation is able to interpret a photograph of a local street scene from the turn of the century more fully and accurately than an uninformed layman. Both look at the same photograph, but they "read" it differently. It is one of the ironies

of contemporary American education that, in a culture bombarded by visual images and rich in photographic heritage, the schools give so little attention to training students in visual literacy.

A teacher sensitive to photographic historical evidence can help students develop a greater degree of visual literacy. It is largely a matter of training students to use photographs as sources of information. Both Thomas Felt's *Researching, Writing, and Publishing Local History* and Donald Dean Parker's *Local History* offer some suggestions for using photographs in this way. The only manual on the use of photographs explicitly addressed to history and social studies teachers is Arlene H. Eakle's *Photograph Analysis* (Salt Lake City, UT: Family History World, 1976). Articles in *Media and Methods*, a journal devoted to the use of non-print media in education, sometimes touch upon the use of historical photographs

There are, of course, a great many sources of historical photographs. The local historical museum, public library, and newspaper office are the most likely places to find them. State and regional history collections, usually housed in state historical society libraries and major public libraries, have extensive photograph collections. Private collections are another principal source. The local historian or history buff is generally aware of the location of these.

Local Sources for Local History

Many of the sources one needs to study local history are scattered among public agencies, local and state libraries and historical societies, and the files of local history buffs. Some are in the attics of long-time residents. Locating these materials can often be a difficult task. Unfortunately, there is no standard method for storing some of the most useful records, and one must simply keep asking until he finds them. Described below are some of the sources that can prove useful and the agencies where they are most often housed.

Local Newspapers. These are among the most important sources, since they described the events as they happened. Most early papers were highly biased, and their editors were often prime boosters for the growth and prestige of the town. If there was more than one paper, the rivalry between the two, especially in local affairs, often makes interesting reading. Advertisements not only describe items in common use at the time but are also important in tracing the change in the business family's fortunes, the changing trade areas of the city, or even the changing occupation of a particular historical person. Papers in western Wyoming, for instance, describe the attempts of young Mr. James C. Penney to get local financing for, of all things, a cash-and-carry store. Everyone knew that miners were always broke by the middle of the month and that such a store could not succeed in Kemmerer, Wyoming. When Penney obtained a loan from his old bank in Missouri, the local newspaper reported the transaction, and eventually described the success of the Golden Rule store. Such news items would now be considered an invasion of privacy, but they were commonplace a century ago and the early years of this century.

Many newspapers publish an anniversary issue each year. These often have a special section devoted to the history of the community. Many of the articles written by local historians are very useful. Since the events are seldom described more often than once in five years, a collection of these papers can make a helpful classroom clipping file.

Newspapers also include election notices, descriptions of private and public auctions, city ordinances, and legal announcements concerning annexations and building permits and extensions of water supplies, trolley lines, and the like. Files of old newspapers can usually be found in public libraries or local historical society headquarters. Occasionally, they may be found at the present newspaper office. Many state historical societies have microfilmed all of the papers that were ever published in the state. These are time consuming to research, but fortunately more and more indexes are being prepared; one should inquire about this service in his own community.

Village, City, and County Histories. Among the first sources one would wish to consult in developing a local history are the already-

published histories. Many of these were written on a subscription basis and contain long and glowing accounts of the leading citizens. Although one must be cautious of this bias, the history may still contain important facts about the town's development. Other, more recent histories have been carefully researched. Because the market for these books is seldom very large, many of them were privately printed, and editions may be hard to find. One should try the public library and the local historical society first, then the state libraries or the rare-books room of the nearest university library. Persons who have lived in the community a long time and local history buffs may have copies.

State or Regional Histories. Most state and regional histories, until the Bicentennial, were written as texts and tend to include more "significant" history than one is after, but they are often very useful for putting the local community into a regional or national perspective. They may be found at public libraries, university libraries, state libraries, or, more frequently, in the storerooms of the local school district.

Business Histories and Anniversary Booklets. Publications celebrating anniversaries of a town's founding or the establishment of a company usually marked a centennial milestone, although some appeared at other times. Banks, large mercantiles, and breweries seem to have been especially interested in this type of commemoration. Such publications describe the growth of the city or the business, and often include human-interest items and a great many "then and now" photographs.

Club Yearbooks and School Annuals. Names, places, and special events are often commemorated in yearbooks and annuals of schools and local organizations. Most fraternal and civic organizations have a historian, whose duty it is to write up information important to that group each year. These accounts are often available only at the club headquarters or from current members. School and university annuals include pictures of the students and also important information about the changing educational system of the community.

Telephone Books, City Directories, or Household Directories. Specific individuals and businesses may be accounted for and traced over many years through various directories. The most useful are the city directories, which are usually arranged by name of head of the household or business owner, and again by street and avenue address. Public libraries, state libraries, and historical societies usually have copies of city directories, going back to the first published.

Diaries, Journals, Letters, Genealogies, and Family Albums. Normally it is the better-educated elite of a town who donate their personal papers to a historical society, but occasionally one may also find materials from or about others who have lived there. Such sources can be especially useful for intimate glances at people and events in the past. Seldom did persons self-consciously plan for these to become historical sources, and as a rule they are often breezy and informal in nature. One can learn about social customs, daily life, local scandals, economic problems, and the impact -- or lack of impact -- that national events made on people in a given community.

Old photograph albums can be priceless. Although they are often useless in determining the appearance of a particular person, since the pictures are seldom identified, they do often show special events such as parades and pageants, and they may provide a very clear architectural study of a particular area.

Public Records. Federal census records are often helpful. The manuscript census, which consists of the actual enumerator's forms, is available through the census of 1900, except for the census of 1890. These forms are arranged by household and neighborhood, not alphabetically; so one needs to have some information before beginning a search. The records tell who lived in each house, their relationship, their occupations, and the age and birthplace of each person. Older census records have been compiled and can be found in *Historical Statistics from 1790 to 1970*. Census records are time consuming to work with. They may be found at federal centers or at universities that act as government depositories.

Most states have an office with a name such as Bureau of Vital Statistics. Birth, marriage, divorce, and death records of individuals are found here, and one may obtain copies. Usually there is a small fee.

City and county tax assessors' offices hold records of property that include the name and address of owner; a legal description of the property, which includes lot, block number, and addition name; date of construction; floor plans; price last paid; and tax assessment. Appraisers' records, which often include notes on structural peculiarities and violations of the building code, may also be kept at the assessor's office.

County clerk and recorders' offices hold records of all property transfers, abstracts of title, and property deeds. These are usually filed by date of transaction; so one must begin his search with some previous knowledge. Estate records and wills may also be found at this office. They may name inheritors, and the records of the administrator of the will may include affidavits and correspondence as supporting evidence. These may provide interesting insights into the life of the deceased. Frequently inventories of personal property, including lists of home furnishings, are a part of such records. If one is reconstructing the appearance of a particular house or life style of the property owner, this is vital information. This office also has voter lists and motor-vehicle registration records.

City planning and city engineering offices are often good sources for maps recording additions to the city and quarter-section maps showing in large detail the streets, blocks, and lots of each addition to the city. Sometimes these are found at an office with a title such as Building Department, which will also have building permits. Permits usually list date, street address, legal description, architect if there was one, contractor, and nature of the building or improvement.

Other Maps and Bird's Eye Views. Many cities have insurance maps drawn up by national companies or a local insurance board. These maps and real estate atlases show every block and structure in a city at

the time they were drawn and include information on building materials used. Robinson, Baist, and Sanborn were the principal companies that kept this kind of record. The Sanborn Map Company, later known as the Sanborn-Perris Map Company, drew maps that showed the location and street address of the building, the construction materials used, the roofing material, the number of stories, the location of porches, the location of wells and outbuildings, and even the use of the building. These were updated as frequently as every two or three years, so they show the constant change in a neigborhood.

Another type of map is the "bird's eye view" of a city. Traveling artists drew these as panoramic views including individual houses, businesses, schools, and government buildings. One does need to use a bit of caution with these maps. The artist was trying to present the best "face" of the community, and sometimes things look a bit finer than they actually were.

Lithographs, Prints, and Photographs. Sometimes local artists were commissioned to paint a particular building, a grand house, or a commercial enterprise; and some of these were lithographed for use in local newspapers or as letterheads for stationery. *Harper's Weekly* sent artists along on excursions when new railroads were opened, and they frequently used illustrations of towns or parts of towns to describe the new route. Many of these were done on the fly and contain only what could be seen from the railroad depot, but they can sometimes be used for dating particular buildings. Some towns had streetscape photographs made of the business district; these may illustrate particular details and give an impression of a whole block.

An experience of researchers in Pensacola, Florida, demonstrates the importance of photographs in searching out information. They were researching an old theater building when they found a photograph of the largest steel beam ever shipped to the state. The manufacturer's name was visible, and a telephone call to the company offices uncovered a full set of structural blueprints for the theater (Ellsworth 1976).

Many local groups have formed in recent years to make historic building surveys of their cities. Often these efforts have been undertaken with preservation in mind, and the groups have done careful

research on the history of the structures. Many have developed walking tours that can serve as field trips or may provide information for teacher-developed activities in architectural or neighborhood studies. In some cases the researcher's notes have been preserved, and these can be even more useful than the finished published histories. Agencies responsible for selecting and maintaining local sites for the National Registry of Historic Places also have full records on these landmarks. Many architectural documents can be found among these files, and often local or state historical societies also have such records, which include such things as blueprints, drawings, sketches, and builder contracts.

Social Registers. These may be used to find information on a particular person or family, and they can also provide a good sense of changing residential patterns. "Good" neighborhoods often decline; as suburbs grew, the wealthy or near-wealthy frequently moved from the city itself. One might think of some of the brownstone neighborhoods of New York City as an obvious example, but what is now known as the "core area" of many medium-sized cities was once the fashionable district.

School Records. These may include monthly records of attendance; pupil permanent record cards; lists of teachers; parent information cards that include names, addresses, residences, and occupations; pamphlets concerning rules and regulations for students and teachers; course description booklets; school newspapers and school annuals; memoranda to and from the principals and central administration and school board; minutes of the school board meetings; lost deeds; architectural plans for school buildings; contractor agreements; sketches; drawings and photographs of buildings; and much more. Such data can be used for a social analysis of the neighborhood in which the school is located. A superb example of how these records can lead to a larger community study is described by Anthony Penna in "Schools as Archives" (*The History Teacher*, November 1975).

Cemeteries

A cemetery can be used to generate considerable information about a local community. The following general questions used by students in a Boulder, Colorado, local history course might be adapted to any location:

General Information

1. How many graves are there in the burial ground? What is the oldest? Most recent?

2. How many markers bear the same last name?

3. Can you identify family plots? How?

4. How many generations do the names on the markers represent?

5. Do these families still live in the community? Try using the telephone book or the local historical society to see whether you can locate and interview the present members of the family. Ask them about the role their ancestors played in the development of your area.

6. Do many deaths fall within a short period of time? Might there have been an epidemic? A serious accident or fire or flood? Check newspapers of that time to see what you can discover.

7. Check the municipal library, the cemetery association, or county courthouse records to see whether you can determine:

    a. the cost of plots over the years,
    b. the restrictions on persons buried there,
    c. the restrictions on types of grave markers.

8. What is the average age of death for each decade of the cemetery's use? What does this change say about living conditions or health care?

9. What is the ratio of graves of men to women? Did women die at an earlier age than men 50 or so years ago? If so, how do you account for that?

10. Has the number of children who died when they were less than a year old changed over the decades? What does this tell you?

11. Is this cemetery still accepting burials? If not, why not?

Ethnic Identification

1. Do many tombstones name the country of birth? If so, list several of these.

2. Does the style of headstone or grave marker differ by ethnic group? Explain and describe.

3. How many different ethnic groups can you identify by the types of names found? (Any good book on the origin of names will provide a reference for this question. There are several in the library.)

4. Is there a definite time span during which particular ethnic group members were buried in the cemetery? How do you account for this?

5. Where and of what denominations are the nearest churches? Has this been influential in determining who was buried in the cemetery? Do these churches have a particular ethnic membership?

6. Are there now, or have there ever been, any ethnic or religious restrictions on who may be buried in any of the cemeteries in your area? Check cemetery records.

Symbology and Inscriptions

1. Do the types of carvings on the tombstones differ according to the age of the persons buried? Are you more likely to find lambs or flowers, for instance, on a child's stone than on a marker for an adult? Describe the differences you find.

2. Are there differences in style between the carvings on the headstones of men and women?

3. Are there carvings or brass plates that indicate that the person buried had been a member of a fraternal organization? Is that group still active in your community?

4. Have the symbols on the headstones changed style over the years? Are they more or less decorative now?

5. What can the inscriptions on the headstones tell you about the people buried there? Are there any that describe a person as a "good mother," "loving husband," "pioneer settler," or the like? Have these changed over the years?

Compiling the information developed through such a study requires that students organize charts and graphs for reporting the statistical data. They must make cross tabulations and frequency distributions.

These data must be tabulated and coded along with the statistics generated. Visual data may be brought back to the classroom in the form of rubbings and photographs, sketches, and site maps. The final report, usually a group effort, provides answers to students' own questions as well as a straightforward factual history of the cemetery.

Rubbings may be made with any paper and crayons or soft pencils, but lightweight rice paper and charcoal crayons produce the best results. These are available at any art supply store. Good photographs of tombstones are technically quite difficult. Mary Ellen Jones (1977), in a leaflet published by the American Association for State and Local History, describes both problems and solutions. She provides tips on the proper cameras, film, and accessories to use and describes proper lighting and exposure.

Although she gives directions for making rubbings and for transcribing, Jones thinks that in most cases photography is a far superior technique. As anyone who has worked with rubbings knows, they are bulky to store and they will not always pick up three-dimensional motifs. Although transcribing is important and must always be done in conjunction with other methods, a photograph can record with less effort and with less chance of error the motif and the shape of the stone as well as the lettering.

With so many of our cemeteries being destroyed by weathering and vandalism, photographs can provide a permanent record for researchers in the future. Jones believes that every cemetery study should include data on the cemetery itself, as well as on each tombstone. An index card for the cemetery should include state, county, city or nearest town, directions to the location, descriptive data about the condition, and information on whether or not a key is needed to enter. Tombstone data should include all names and dates, the name of the stonecutter if it is visible, the nature of the epitaph if there is one, and the symbology used. Photographs and negatives should be keyed to these data and stored with them. Epitaphs, religious symbolism, folk art, styles in carving and lettering, and trends in cemetery furniture -- all are useful primary source material that may be used for demographic,

genealogical, and social history studies.

Motifs and symbology are intriguing. In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, most could be classified into five main categories: classical revival, flowers, hands, animals, and angels. Epitaphs were most often four-line verses or brief quotations from the Bible. Students visiting the cemetery in Central City, Colorado, often feel a strong empathy with someone like George Richards, a 20-year-old Cornish miner, who died there in 1876, and whose tombstone bears the inscription:

> Dear Friends I am only sleeping
> In this cold and silent grave
> I am at rest, be not weeping
> So far away from home.

Most teachers would not want to make intensive cemetery studies. Some have developed short activities to use in conjunction with other local history projects. Bernard Hollister (1975, p. 44) suggests having students compare the causes of death in the past and today by using census tracts. Death rates for each of the months might be tabulated. Students might find and list ten familiar names and ten unfamiliar names in a cemetery and then try to find the historical or social significance of each group.

Carmel, New York, junior high students may choose the study of a Revolutionary graveyard as one of their learning activity packages. They are asked to sketch and make rubbings of tombstones, locate and record information about citizens and soldiers buried there, identify the types of stone used, observe the weathering of the stones, and record the evidence of care or neglect. The project culminates in this assignment:

> A graveyard is not like a city street or large field or any other place in the world. Some people have a deep fear. Others look upon graveyards with a deep respect. How do you feel? You've spent some time walking and looking where people are resting for eternity.
>
> 1. Find a place to sit down.
> 2. Look around carefully.

3. Write a paragraph on what it was like for you to be in this Revolutionary War Graveyard (Reilly 1974, p. 19).

Oral History

In an article written for the *Chronicle of Higher Education Review*, Larry Van Dyne (1973, p. 10) asked the question, "Does oral history perpetuate trivia?" Teachers who have had students use the method might agree readily with Barbara Tuchman, who has used interviews in her work but who says:

> With the appearance of the tape recorder, a monster with the appetite of a tapeworm, we now have, through its creature oral history, an artificial survival of trivia of appalling proportions. With all sorts of people being invited merely to open their mouths and ramble effortlessly and endlessly into a tape recorder, prodded daily by an acolyte of oral history, a few veins of gold and a vast mass of trash are being preserved which could otherwise have gone to dust. We are drowning ourselves in unneeded information.
>
> Louis Starr, head of the renowned Columbia collection responded: What is trash to one researcher is gold to another. Example: our 'endless' interviews with radio people, in 1949-51, regarding their early careers -- trash to most anyone, but pure gold to Erik Barnouw, whose prize-winning three-volume history of broadcasting simply could not have been written without them (Van Dyne 1973, p. 10).

Gold or trivia? For many teachers the question is an academic one. They have seen their students develop social skills as well as research and writing skills as a result of their experience in oral history, and these gains seem to outweigh any serious concerns about the specific data generated. For those whose concern *is* the data, there is hope. Since 1973, there have been many excellent guides for training oral historians, and there have been vast improvements in cataloging and indexing the available collections. Several of these are described earlier in this chapter.

In *Looking At Oral History*, Bonny Cochran (1975, p. 1) quotes from an interview with Willa Baum, director of the Oral History Office, Bancroft Library, University of California at Berkeley. Baum makes several important points quite clearly:

> Oral history is a method of collecting information. I'd like to emphasize the word *method* because oral history isn't a subject field. The method includes planned-in-advance, tape-recorded interviews with someone who has firsthand knowledge of an event or a way of life that's of some historical interest. It is *not* random conversation tape recorded. The interviewer and the interviewee know that they're going to be tape recorded and they talk about something for historical preservation and they aren't just chatting. . . .
>
> I think a lot of people combine the idea of oral history with local history. Local history is the subject -- what you're studying -- and oral history is the method. They go together very well -- ideally, I think, for the elementary or secondary school level.

Examples of good oral-local history projects are plentiful. Some are listed in the Additional References at the end of this section; two are appropriate for inclusion here:

Joyce Henderson (1975) tells of a case in which Harry Kursh, a junior high school teacher, tied his project in with the study of immigration to the United States in the 1920s and 1930s. The subject to be interviewed had been chief of Immigration Inspection Service at Ellis Island during that time. Students prepared for the interview by reading background material and then submitting written questions. The class chose the questions they thought would elicit the most information, and then copies of these were made for each student. During the interview Kursh asked the questions and acted as moderator for student follow-up questions. Students took turns transcribing the data (Henderson 1975). As an initial experience for the students, this was an excellent project; it also fulfilled the requirements for a good oral history interview. The topic had relevance, for the class was

studying immigration; many of the students were from immigrant families, and Ellis Island was a part of their community. The narrator knew the topic well and was able to provide the students with examples of the human experience that makes history exciting.

The second project chosen as a model happens also to tie local history to United States studies. Michael Ebner (1976) of Lake Forest College used an effective method in his undergraduate course, "Oral and Community History." He divided the course into five segments: The first developed a national perspective on the period chosen for study; the second was an examination of the local community; the third involved training in the research techniques of oral history; the fourth was an actual field research; and the fifth was structured for the students to draw conclusions and make evaluations of their work.

After the students performed traditional research, they wrote papers on the topic "Franklin Roosevelt: Why Some Loved Him and Others Hated Him." Students had examined the changing historiographical treatment of the 1930s and had read the local newspapers of the time, so they had an inkling of what to expect when they interviewed residents of the highly affluent North Shore suburb. The sociopolitical environment was, says Ebner, what one would expect: The people were mostly strong Republicans and critical of the Roosevelt administration.

After this experience Ebner concluded that, although it added interest to the students' study, the method might better be used with more-advanced students who are better able to link it with a particular scholarly topic. "While oral history is innovative and exciting to many undergraduates," he says, "it must remain only one of many tools for the study of the past."

References to Chapter VII

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Additional References

Henderson, Joyce. (See citation above.) Henderson describes other examples of using oral history. At Sir Francis Drake High School in San Anselmo, California, an English teacher has her students research and write about one year in an older relative's life -- the same year as the student's age. After researching the specific year on a national and local level, students conduct the interview. The final product is a written biography. In Philadelphia, a sociology class uses oral interviews and a camera on a field trip taken on a trolley. They study the structure of the city, neighborhoods, and the attitudes about both as displayed by their narrators, fellow travelers on the trolley.

Old Glory. New York, NY: Warner Books, 1973. This paperback book describes approaches to local history. There is also a section with descriptions of 75 different hometown history projects.

Pennsylvania State Department of Education. *Oral History: What? Why? How? Guidelines for Oral History*. Harrisburg, PA: Bureau of Curriculum Services, 1975. This booklet not only provides guidelines for establishing an oral history program, with options including a semester course, an independent study project, a mini-course, a cocurricular history club project, or an interdisciplinary course, but also describes nine projects in Pennsylvania secondary schools. Included are lists of subject areas for student investigations, tips on interviewing and use of interviews, release forms, and questionnaires to be used for the study of local ethnicity, community life, and labor management relations. ED 117014.

Spade, Beatrice. "Americans in Vietnam: An Oral History Project." *The History Teacher*, 8:2 (February 1975) 183-192. This project took place at Louisiana State University and was part of a Southeast Asian history course. The article describes the training of the students, the techniques used to interview Vietnam veterans, and the correlations made between the interviews and the academic content of the course. It also offers suggestions for those who might like to develop a similar project.

Weitzman, David. *My Backyard History Book*. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1975. This charming collection of project ideas inspires both students and teachers through its imaginative approach. It is especially useful with elementary students.

Wolkerstorfer, Sister John Christine. "Oral History -- A New Look at Local History." *Catholic Library World*, 47:3 (October 1975) 104-107. This article describes the oral history project at the College of St. Catherine in Minnesota. It emphasizes the mechanics of setting up a program in a private institution and the benefits for the college and the area. EJ 124638.